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SOCIAL PROGRESS

A YEAR BOOK AND ENCYCLOPEDIA
OF ECONOMIC, INDUSTRIAL, SOCIAL
AND RELIGIOUS STATISTICS

1905

JOSIAH STRONG, EDITOR

President American Institute of Social Service

Author of "Our Country," "The New Era," "The Twentieth Century City,"
"The Times and Young Men," etc., etc.

THE BAKER AND TAYLOR CO., PUBLISHERS
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P R E F A C E .

The reception accorded to "Social Progress" for 1904 would seem to indicate that it accomplished in good measure the object for which it was issued. The present volume is a distinct advance upon its predecessor. It contains more material, is more comprehensive, and has profited variously by the suggestions and friendly criticisms, which were invited, and which are again solicited for the benefit of future issues.

Many subjects usually comprehended in almanacs and hand encyclopedias are not included. There has been no attempt to make the book a treasury of curious and interesting facts, however unrelated they might be to practical life. It is our aim to make "Social Progress" indispensable to every editor, teacher, preacher, student and man of affairs who desires to keep abreast of the great social movements which are revolutionizing society, creating a new civilization and remaking the world.

One of the most valuable and unique features of the year book will be an annual survey of the social progress made during the preceding year by every important country in the world, and prepared, when practicable, by some one on the ground.

Our especial thanks are given to the gentlemen who kindly prepared these résumés for the past year. Their valued coöperation has added much to the book, and is deeply appreciated. To the many, too, in our own country who have aided us in the preparation of the book either by signed articles or by giving us needed information, we desire to express our indebtedness and our sincerest thanks. Acknowledgment is due also to the editors of *The Christian Advocate*, of the (English) *Reformers' Year Book*, The Macmillan Company, publishers of *The Statesman's Year Book* and *Whitaker's Almanac*, Charles Scribner's Sons, Messrs. Funk and Wagnalls and Messrs. Rowntree & Sherwell's *Temperance Problem and Social Reform* for their courtesy in permitting us to quote from their valuable publications, also to Miss H. L. Witschen for translating.

In the preparation of this Year Book we have happily been able to avail ourselves of the expert services of W. D. P. Bliss, editor of "The Encyclopedia of Reforms," which since its publication, eight years ago, has been regarded as a standard. Such a work, however, is soon behind the rapid course of events, and owing to its bulk does not admit of frequent revision. It is believed that "Social Progress" will serve as a virtual supplement to "The Encyclopedia of Reforms," thus annually bringing it down to date.

JOSIAH STRONG.

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The £ in this book is taken at an even \$5, the mark at 25 cents and the franc at 20 cents.

- Page 12—Last line, For “98.” read “9.8”
Page 16—Heading second paragraph. Omit “of ” after “Crosby.”
Page 27—Eleventh line. For “Mansas ” read “Kansas.”
Page 87—Fourth paragraph, sixth line. For “confusedly ” read “confessedly.”
Page 99—Table, Parents of Prisoners, seventh column. For “943.” read “9.43 ”
Page 108—Second heading. For “Bile ” read “Bill.”
Page 110—Thirteenth line from bottom. For “1903 ” read “1893.”
Page 127—Heading. For “Great Junior ” read “George Junior.”
Page 187—Table. Omit first two lines.
Page 196—Heading second table. Omit “Of License.”
Page 281—Line 21. For “Cub ” read “Club.”

SOCIAL PROGRESS

A Year Book and Encyclopedia of Economic, Industrial, Social and Religious Statistics

THE WORLD.

AREA, POPULATION, DENSITY.

A New Estimate, based on Latest Official Censuses.

DIVISIONS ¹	Area in Sq. Miles ⁵	Desert	Population, Latest Censuses	Estimate of Supan ¹¹	Per Sq. Mile ¹⁰
Africa.	11,403,000	2,226,000	148,669,000	140,700,000	13
America, North ²	8,559,000 ²	95,000	110,942,000 ³	105,714,000	13
America, South.	7,598,000	45,000	37,963,000	38,482,000	5
Asia ³	15,085,000 ³	1,200,000	869,045,000 ³	819,556,000	57
Europe.	3,796,000	395,269,700	392,264,000	104
Oceania ⁴	4,215,000 ⁴	614,000	49,880,000 ⁴	6,483,000	12
Polar regions.	91,000
Total	50,656,000 ⁶	4,180,000 ⁸	1,611,718,000	1,503,290,000	31

¹ For details see next page. ² Including West Indies. ³ Including Japan, but not the Dutch East Indies. ⁴ Including all islands in the Eastern Indian and Southern Pacific Oceans. ⁵ Total, including desert, steppes, etc. ⁶ Differences in estimates of authorities are in part accounted for by including or not polar regions, islands, water spaces, etc. ⁷ Estimate of Ernest G. Ravenstein, F.R.G.S., in proceedings of Royal Geographical Society, 1891, p. 27. ⁸ Ravenstein estimates the fertile regions of the earth at 28,269,200 square miles; steppes, 13,901,000; desert, 4,180,000; polar regions, 4,888,800. ⁹ Including 36,000,000 in the Dutch East Indies. ¹⁰ Obtained by dividing populations in third column by areas in first. If desert and polar regions be allowed for, Africa has a density of 17.35; North America, 14.91; South America, 4.96; Asia, 62.30; Australia, .77; Europe, 103.75; Oceania, 13.80; the earth, 35.96. ¹¹ Dr. A. Supan, in Dr. Peterman's Mitteilungen. Ergansungsheft; No. 146. Gotha, 1904.

The above figures will be found larger than those given in most almanacs, because they represent, in most cases, returns ten years later. The *World Almanac* for 1905 still prints statistics for 1890. Our figures for North and South America, except for the European colonies, are from the United States Summary of Commerce and Finance for September, 1904. For the rest of the world they are from the Statesman's Year Book for 1904. This means that they are from the latest official censuses, in many cases those of 1901. As knowledge, particularly of the semi-civilized portions of the earth, has been vastly increased during the last ten years, owing to these countries being brought under the control of civilized nations, it is believed that these tables present results, as recent and accurate as any yet published.

POSSIBLE POPULATION.

If the whole earth were as thickly inhabited as Great Britain and Ireland (351 to the sq. m. *see next section*) it would have, omitting desert and polar regions, a population of 15,313,076,000. Ravenstein estimates that the earth, with present methods of production could support 207 to the sq. m.

SOCIAL PROGRESS

COUNTRIES. POPULATIONS. AREAS.

The statistics for North and South America except for the European Colonies, are from the U. S. Summary of Commerce and Finance for Sept., 1904. For the rest of the world they are from the Statesman's Year Book, 1904.

COUNTRIES	Area in Sq. Miles	Population	Per Sq. M	COUNTRIES	Area in Sq. Miles	Population	Per Sq. M
<i>Africa:</i>				British Depend. ¹	1,826,000	300,378,000	164
Abyssinia.	150,000	3,500,000	23	China.	4,277,000	426,047,000	99
British Posses. ¹	2,391,000	38,105,000	16	French Depend.	256,000	18,507,000	74
Congo Free St. . .	900,000	30,002,000	33	German "	200	18,000	90
Egypt.	400,000	9,734,000	(10)	Japan ⁶	161,000	47,564,000	294
Egyptian Sudan.	950,000	2,000,000	8	Korea.	82,000	12,000,000	146
French Depend.	3,792,000	34,849,000	9	Nepal.	54,000	4,000,000	74
German "	932,000	13,047,000	14	Oman	82,000	1,500,000	18
Italian "	188,000	850,000	4	Persia.	628,000	9,500,000	15
Liberia	35,000	2,060,000	58	Portuguese Poss.	9,000	910,000	101
Morocco	219,000	5,000,000	22	Russian "	6,565,000	22,697,000	4
Portugese Dep. . .	794,000	8,248,000	10	Siam.	220,000	5,000,000	24
Spanish "	253,000	274,000	1	Turkish Posses .	693,000	16,899,000	24
Turkish " 2	399,000	1,000,000	3	Total Asia	15,085,200	869,045,000	57
Total Africa . . .	11,403,000	148,669,000	13	<i>Europe:</i>			
<i>America, N.:</i> ³				Austria ⁷	115,903	26,150,708	226
British Colonies ¹	3,802,000	7,230,000	2	Hungary	125,430	19,254,559	154
Costa Rica.	23,000	313,000	13	Belgium	11,373	6,693,548	589
Cuba.	43,000	1,573,000	36	Bulgaria ⁸	37,200	3,744,300	154
Danish Colonies .	87,000	121,000	15	Denmark.	15,388	2,464,770	160
Dutch "	400	52,000	130	France.	207,054	38,961,945	188
French "	1,000	392,000	337	Germany.	208,830	56,367,178	269
Guatamala.	47,000	1,647,000	35	Greece.	25,014	2,433,806	97
Haiti.	10,000	1,294,000	126	Italy.	110,550	32,961,247	298
Honduras.	46,000	775,000	16	Luxemburg.	998	236,543	247
Mexico.	767,000	13,545,000	17	Monaco.	8	15,180	1897
Nicaragua.	49,000	500,000	10	Montenegro.	3,630	228,000	62
Panama.	32,000	340,000	10	Netherlands.	12,648	5,347,182	422
Salvador.	7,000	1,007,000	139	Norway.	124,130	2,240,032	18
Santo Domingo .	18,000	610,000	33	Portugal.	35,490	5,423,132	152
United States ⁴ . .	3,623,000	80,590,000	26	Rumania.	50,720	5,912,600	116
Porto Rico ¹¹ . . .	3,600	953,000	27	Russia (Europe). .	2,095,616	106,307,136	51
Total Amer., N. .	8,559,000	110,942,000	13	San Marino.	38	11,002	289
<i>America, S.:</i>				Servia.	18,630	2,493,770	134
Argentina.	1,136,000	4,794,000	4	Spain.	194,770	18,607,674	96
Bolivia.	703,000	1,816,000	2	Sweden.	172,876	5,198,752	39
Brazil.	3,219,000	14,334,000	4	Switzerland	15,976	3,315,443	207
British Colonies ¹	116,500	296,000	25	Turkey ⁹	92,370	8,323,540	90
Chili.	280,000	3,951,000	11	United Kingdom ¹	121,146	42,577,653	351
Colombia	473,000	3,665,000	8	Total Europe	3,795,788	395,269,694	104
Dutch Colonies. .	46,000	70,000	15	<i>Oceania:</i>			
Ecuador.	116,000	1,204,000	10	Australasia ¹	2,973,000	3,776,000	13
French Colonies .	30,500	33,000	1	Other British ¹	286,000	1,973,000	7
Paraguay.	98,000	636,000	6	Dutch.	736,000	36,000,000	48
Peru.	714,000	4,610,000	6	French.	9,000	80,000	9
Uruguay	72,000	959,000	13	German.	96,000	461,000	45
Venezuela	594,000	2,445,000	4	United States.	115,000	7,590,000	66
Total Amer., S. .	7,598,000	37,913,000	5	Total Oceania.	4,215,000	49,880,000	12
<i>Asia:</i> ⁵				Total world.	51,656,000	1,611,718,000	31
Afghanistan. . . .	215,000	4,000,000	18				
Bhutan.	17,000	25,000	1				

¹For details see table of the British Empire. ²Not including Egypt. ³Including West Indies and Hawaii. ⁴Including Alaska and Hawaii not Porto Rico. ⁵Including Japan and Formosa, but not the Dutch East Indies. ⁶Including Formosa. ⁷Not including Bosnia and Herzegovina. ⁸Including Eastern Roumelia. ⁹Not including Bulgaria and Eastern Roumelia, but including Bosnia, Herzegovina, and Mediterranean islands. ¹⁰Nile Valley 692. ¹¹Statesman's Year Book.

RATE OF GROWTH.

Dr. J. Bertillon, Chief of the Statistical Department of the City of Paris, gives the following figures of the gain of population per 1,000 in ten years. (*Bulletin de l'Institut International de Statistique vol. XIII. Part II.*)

United States, 206; Mexico, 72.4; Austria, 92.6; Hungary, 102.5; Belgium, 122.9; Bulgaria, 182.1; Denmark, 126.7; France, 12.1; Germany, 139.8; Italy, 70.5; Netherlands, 131.3; Norway, 112.4; Russia in Europe, 136.2; Servia, 172.6; Spain, 32.1; Switzerland, 101.7. See Birth Rate

RELATIVE STRENGTH OF GREAT POWERS.

Statistics compiled for United Kingdom from Statesman's Year Book 1904, for other powers from U. S. Summary of Commerce and Finance Sept. 1904, except as indicated.

COUNTRIES	Area in square miles	Population	Revenue (Dollars)	Exports (Dollars)	Debt (Dollars)
United Kingdom	121,027	42,372,556	757,758,490	1,998,402,780	3,991,745,950
Colonies, Dependencies	11,495,794	352,064,111	777,375,150	1,548,508,330	3,222,330,970
United States	3,622,933	80,590,000	694,621,000	1,392,381,000	925,011,637
Dependencies	125,825	7,944,617	15,326,000	33,122,000	6,000,000
Eng.-speaking Powers	15,365,579	482,971,284	2,245,080,640	4,972,414,110	8,145,088,575
France	207,054	38,961,945	695,276,000	820,671,000	5,856,706,000
Dependencies	4,089,076	53,412,340	46,194,000	144,838,000	30,433,000
German Empire	208,830	56,367,178	495,853,800	1,113,313,000	698,844,000
Dependencies	1,027,820	13,508,000	2,227,000	4,497,000	
Russian Empire	8,660,395	129,004,514	1,101,107,000	392,215,000	3,414,061,000
France, German, Russia	14,193,175	291,254,027	2,340,657,000	2,475,534,000	10,000,044,000

COUNTRIES	Wealth ¹ (Dollars)	Rail-ways Miles ²	Merchant Marine Tonnage ³	Per Cent. of Pop. in Elementary Schools ⁴	News-papers ⁵	Foot-tons of Power ⁶	Battle-Ships & Cruisers ⁷
United Kingdom	55,000,000,000	22,152	15,391,350	18	9,500	47,810	213
Dependencies		68,935	1,189,495	18	2,083		
United States	110,000,000,000	197,077	3,849,400	21	23,265	108,200	66
Dependencies		88			35		
Eng.-speaking Powers	165,000,000,000	288,252	20,430,245	20	34,883	156,010	279
France	50,000,000,000	27,111	1,693,366	13	6,681	4,500	94
Dependencies		3,039					
German Empire	48,000,000,000	32,733	3,369,807	17	8,049	7,500	72
Dependencies							
Russian Empire	35,000,000,000	39,243	840,515	4	1,000	800	36
France, Germany, Russia	133,000,000,000	102,126	5,903,688	9	15,720	12,800	202

¹Estimated by C. M. Harvey, *The World's Work*, Feb. 1905. ²Statistical Year Book of the German Empire, 1903. ³Commissioner of Navigation U. S., 1904. ⁴Commissioner of Education U. S., 1903. ⁵Rowell's Newspaper Directory, 1904. ⁶Mulhall's Dic. of Statistics, 1898. Millions of foot-tons daily. ⁷See page 4.

LANGUAGES	NUMBER OF PERSONS SPOKEN BY		Proportion of the whole.	
	1801 ¹	1900	1801	1890
English	20,520,000	136,000,000	12.7	30.2
French	31,450,000	53,000,000	19.4	11.6
German	30,320,000	83,000,000	18.7	18.4
Italian	15,070,000	38,000,000	9.3	8.4
Spanish	26,190,000	45,000,000	16.2	10.0
Portuguese	7,480,000	14,000,000	4.7	3.1
Russian	30,770,000	80,000,000	19.0	17.8
Total	161,800,000	449,000,000	100.0	100.0

¹Mulhall's Estimate.

SOCIAL PROGRESS

ARMIES AND WAR BUDGETS OF PRINCIPAL COUNTRIES.

COMPILED FROM WHITAKER'S ALMANAC FOR 1905.

	War Effective	Peace Strength or Standing Army. War Budget 1904			War Effective	Peace Strength or Standing Army. War Budget 1904	
Argentina.....	490,000		\$6,798,625	Netherlands...	175,650	26,950	11,131,450
Austria Hun-				Peru.....		4,200	1,870,000 ⁴
gary.....	2,676,000	383,869	76,254,140	Portugal.....	244,000	33,800	5,676,595
Belgium.....	100,000	49,600	11,069,000 ⁴	Roumania....	175,000	22,000	7,474,830
Brazil.....	94,000 ¹	24,100	2,800,000 ⁴	Russia.....		4,551,000	191,652,735
Bulgaria.....	313,000	42,740	5,201,935	Servia.....	300,000	23,000	3,656,380
Chile.....	96,000	15,500	3,619,860 ²	Spain.....	1,800,000	100,000	32,292,830
China.....	591,000 ¹	91,000	35,000,000	Sweden.....	45,700		15,488,890
Denmark.....	75,000	14,000	3,025,740	Norway.....	77,000		4,471,370
France.....	3,339,000	549,372	134,450,710	Switzerland...	529,719		7,345,815
Germany.....	5,000,000	617,977	143,945,000	Unit. Kingdom	1,118,000	221,800	172,500,000
Greece.....	150,000	19,000	2,299,625 ²	Prncipal Col's	316,000	244,000	59,890,000
Italy.....	3,329,000	277,976	55,801,670	Turkey.....	700,000	383,000	23,850,000
Japan.....	633,000	160,000	19,648,860	United States..		63,750	240,410,000
Mexico.....	190,000	35,500	15,000,000	Venezuela....	16,820	4,752	

(1) U. S. War Department Estimate. (2) 1903. (3) Over half of this is for pensions

(4) Statesman's Year Book.

Note.—Total war effective about 33,000,000 men. Total peace strength 8,000,000. Total annual war budget over \$1,300,000,000; adding \$500,000,000 for naval budget (Statesman's Year Book) makes \$1,800,000,000.

SEA STRENGTH OF THE PRINCIPAL NAVAL POWERS.¹

COMPILED BY THE UNITED STATES OFFICE OF NAVAL INTELLIGENCE, JAN. 13, 1905.

TYPE OF VESSEL	GT. BRITAIN		FRANCE		RUSSIA		GERMANY		U. S.		ITALY		JAPAN	
	Built.		Built		Built		Built		Built		Built		Built	
	No.	Tons	No.	Tons	No.	Tons	No.	Tons	No.	Tons	No.	Tons	No.	Tons
Battleships first class. ²	51	682,200	19	212,589	14	170,153	16	178,575	13	137,329	12	162,314	4	57,000
Coast defense ves'ls ³	6	49,900	17	73,368	10	63,262	16	91,315	12	47,445	1	3,913	2	11,067
Armored cruisers...	29	282,400	18	145,085	6	51,605	4	39,047	2	17,415	5	31,891	8	72,738
Cruisers above 6,000 tons. ⁴	21	201,950	4	31,513	5	32,586			2	14,750				
Cruisers, 6,000 to 3,000 tons. ⁴	50	221,460	18	74,378	6	22,667	9	46,749	16	58,279	5	17,490	11	43,776
Cruisers, 3,000 to 1,000 tons. ⁴	56	103,960	18	32,868	7	8,760	27	58,859	21	29,497	12	26,216	12	22,098
Torpedo boat destroyers...	126	44,565	31	9,250	35	9,984	37	12,660	16	6,695	11	3,503	19	6,309
Torpedo boats...	90	8,036	238	20,735	85	8,229	105	13,924	27	4,200	101	9,076	85	7,767
Submarines...	9	1,400	37	3,935	3	360	1	120	8	913	1	107		
Total tons built...		1,595,871		603,721		367,606		441,249		316,523		254,510		220,755

¹ Gunboats of less than 1,000 tons have so slight a military value that they are omitted.² Battleships, first class, are those of (about) 10,000 or more tons displacement.³ Includes smaller battleships and monitors.⁴ All unarmored warships of more than 1,000 tons are, in this table, classed according to displacement as cruisers.

SOCIAL PROGRESS

5

RELATIVE ORDER OF WARSHIP TONNAGE.

AT PRESENT		AS WOULD BE THE CASE WERE VESSELS BUILDING NOW COMPLETED	
Nation	Tonnage	Nation	Tonnage
Great Britain.....	1,595,871	Great Britain.....	1,926,107
France.....	603,721	France.....	778,149
Germany.....	441,249	United States.....	643,693
Russia.....	367,606	Germany.....	567,291
United States.....	316,523	Russia.....	477,409
Italy.....	254,510	Italy.....	327,339
Japan.....	220,755	Japan.....	257,577
Austria.....	112,336	Austria.....	151,426

FREE GOVERNMENT IN THE WORLD.

AREAS, POPULATIONS AND FORMS OF GOVERNMENT.

COUNTRIES AND GOVERNMENT	AREAS	PER CENT	POPULATIONS	PER CENT
Republican:				
N. America. United States.....	3,622,933		80,590,000	
Latin Republics.....	1,045,600		22,500,000	
S. America. (Except Guiana).....	7,405,000		37,514,000	
Europe. France.....	207,054		38,961,945	
Switzerland.....	15,976		3,315,443	
San Marino.....	38		11,002	
Africa. Liberia.....	35,000		2,060,000	
Total Republican.....	12,331,601	24.3	184,952,000	11.4
Constitutional:				
N. America. British Colonies.....	3,782,554		5,591,564	
Europe (except France, Switzerland, San Marino, Russia, and Turkey).....	1,384,734		238,350,628	
Africa, Cape Colony and Natal.....	313,165		3,358,118	
Asia, Japan.....	161,200		47,564,000	
Oceania, Australian Com. and New Zealand.....	3,077,377		4,548,992	
Total Constitutional.....	8,719,030	17.2	299,413,302	18.5
Colonies without Self-Government or Dependencies:				
India.....	1,087,404		231,898,807	
Anglo-Egypt and Soudan.....	1,350,000		11,734,000	
Other British Colonies and Dependencies.....	3,135,294		106,666,074	
Congo (Belgian).....	900,000		30,002,000	
Dutch Colonies and Dependencies.....	782,863		36,122,785	
Danish Colonies and Dependencies.....	86,634		120,890	
French Colonies and Dependencies.....	4,089,076		53,412,340	
German Colonies and Dependencies.....	1,027,820		13,508,000	
Italian Colonies and Dependencies.....	188,000		850,000	
Portuguese Colonies and Dependencies.....	809,952		9,158,952	
Spanish Colonies and Dependencies.....	253,580		273,709	
United States Dependencies.....	125,885		7,944,617	
Total Colonial without Self-Government.....	13,836,208	27.3	501,692,174	31.4
Autocratic:				
Russian Empire, Europe and Asia.....	8,660,395		129,004,514	
Turkish Empire, Europe and Asia.....	1,184,880		26,232,240	
Chinese Empire.....	4,277,170		426,047,000	
Siam.....	220,000		2,000,000	
Persia.....	628,000		9,500,000	
Korea.....	82,000		12,000,000	
Afghanistan.....	215,400		4,000,000	
Bhutan, Nepal, and Oman.....	152,800		5,525,000	
Abyssinia.....	150,000		3,500,000	
Morocco.....	219,000		5,000,000	
Total Autocratic.....	15,789,645	31.1	625,798,754	38.8

COUNTRIES	Revenue	Expendite	Exc's or Deficit	Debt	Per Capita of Debt
Argentina.....	\$62,723,000	\$60,757,000	+	\$479,765,265	\$100.08
Australasia: Commonwealth.....	140,755,000	142,148,000	-	1,084,605,444	287.54
New Zealand.....	31,376,000	30,241,000	-	275,439,126	349.54
75,896,000	75,896,000	+	1,107,464,025	24.39	
Austria-Hungary.....	350,509,000	350,424,000	+	739,020,208	28.26
Austria.....	220,672,000	221,649,000	-	1,038,585,000	53.93
Hungary.....	122,657,000	116,500,000	+	544,052,979	81.28
Belgium.....	3,614,000	3,663,000	-	6,180,602	3.40
Bolivia.....	137,295,000	99,366,000	+	540,693,936	37.72
Brazil.....	121,885,000	117,381,000	+	368,763,125	25.55
British colonies, n. e. s.....	18,917,000	18,853,000	+	62,428,200	16.67
Bulgaria.....	158,051,000	150,759,000	+	271,829,090	49.81
Canada.....	2,820,000	2,812,000	+	14,603,556	46.66
Central America: Costa Rica.....	2,046,000	2,169,000	-	12,142,334	7.37
Guatemala.....	1,373,000	1,264,000	+	96,249,771	124.19
Honduras.....	2,403,000	2,393,000	+	5,590,636	11.18
Nicaragua.....	3,281,000	3,274,000	+	3,966,472	3.67
San Salvador.....	38,684,000	44,001,000	-	107,304,151	35.17
Chile.....	62,710,000	71,896,000	-	613,140,000	1.50
China.....	No data.	No data.	-	14,494,792	3.62
Colombia.....	18,791,000	19,515,000	-
Cuba.....	20,306,000	20,792,000	-	66,033,849	26.61
Denmark.....	5,208,000	4,540,000	+	5,746,628	4.77
Ecuador.....	60,051,000	56,511,000	+	500,743,871	51.44
Egypt.....	25,555,000	24,993,000	+	25,897,277	9.44
Finland.....	695,276,000	695,250,000	+	5,856,706,403	150.32
France.....	2 ¹ 10,899,000	2 ¹ 10,496,000	-
Algeria.....	6,158,000	6,481,000	-	30,433,784	16.02
Tunis.....	2 ² 17,100,000	2 ² 17,100,000	+
French colonies, n. e. s.....	2 ¹ 12,037,000	2 ¹ 12,031,000	+
French East Indies.....	495,853,000	553,222,000	-	698,849,400	11.94
German Empire.....	904,287,000	902,990,000	+	2,687,621,000	45.90
German States.....	2,227,000	2,227,000	+
German colonies.....	14,664,000	14,327,000	+	159,787,136	65.65
Greece.....	47,327,000	47,341,000	-	27,961,249	21.61
Haiti.....	371,531,000	346,440,000	+	1,102,905,139	3.74
India, British.....	375,000,000	356,492,000	+	2,560,605,000	78.85
Italy.....	133,039,000	132,895,000	+	261,857,143	5.71
Japan.....	9,844,000	9,643,000	+
Formosa.....	5,362,000	5,361,000	+
Korea.....	29,171,000	27,819,000	+	175,945,345	12.99
Mexico.....	61,526,000	61,468,000	+	463,150,904	86.62
Netherlands.....	61,934,000	66,750,000	-
Dutch East Indies.....	27,000,000	27,259,000	-	70,376,355	31.09
Norway.....	11,007,000	11,007,000	-	11,223,805	17.65
Paraguay.....	3 ¹ 7,300,000	3 ¹ 7,300,000	+	16,737,500	1.76
Persia.....	7,533,000	7,016,000	+	23,159,700	5.02
Peru.....	57,336,000	62,170,000	-	819,886,580	151.02
Portugal.....	42,114,000	38,906,000	+	272,774,501	46.13
Roumania.....	1,101,107,000	1,116,095,000	-	3,414,061,734	24.21
Russia.....	1,910,000	1,722,000	+	26,219,449	42.98
Santo Domingo.....	13,619,000	14,086,000	-	80,806,223	31.86
Servia.....	13,823,000	13,640,000	+
Siam.....	197,077,000	187,846,000	+	2,061,389,972	110.72
Spain.....	49,712,000	49,593,000	+	92,833,336	17.86
Sweden.....	20,691,000	20,563,000	+	17,400,567	5.18
Switzerland.....	81,450,000	81,089,000	+	723,125,400	29.00
Turkey.....	737,526,000	897,790,000	-	3,885,166,333	92.59
United Kingdom.....	694,621,000	640,323,000	+	925,011,637	11.51
United States.....	15,326,000	14,263,000	+	6,000,000	.79
Philippine Islands.....	16,703,000	15,032,000	+	127,362,827	132.81
Uruguay.....	4,818,000	5,026,000	-	49,335,647	20.14
Venezuela.....
Total.....	\$7,901,486,000	\$7,980,856,000		\$34,633,164,406

¹ Consolidated fund. ² Local Budget. ³ Estimated. ⁴ Largely in depreciated paper.

SOCIAL PROGRESS

7

MERCE OF COUNTRIES.

Commerce and Finance for September, 1904

Money per Capita	FOREIGN COMMERCE			COMMERCE WITH THE UNITED STATES	
	Imports	Exports	Excess of exports (+) or imports (-)	Exports from United States to	Imports into United States from
\$65.83	\$99,433,000	\$173,205,000 +	\$73,772,000	\$9,808,529	\$10,396,873
29.54	⁵⁶ 203,644,000	⁵⁶ 213,713,000 +	10,069,000	28,101,784	⁶ 13,845,001
9.04	⁶ 55,121,000	⁶ 66,403,000 +	11,282,000		
.....	349,228,000	388,460,000 +	39,232,000	6,672,580	10,093,346
22.40	459,472,000	371,620,000 -	87,852,000	43,515,112	17,912,084
2.31	5,587,000	11,076,000 +	5,489,000	76,926	1,731
25.80	113,288,000	177,323,000 +	64,035,000	11,155,565	71,583,086
9.21	475,370,000	280,744,000 -	194,626,000	57,886,757	22,875,024
1.85	13,751,000	20,011,000 +	6,260,000		
17.85	224,814,000	196,161,000 -	28,653,000	123,472,416	54,660,410
.....	4,415,000	5,561,000 +	1,246,000	1,697,043	3,291,545
9.24	3,018,000	7,134,000 +	4,116,000	1,128,418	2,190,145
.....	1,672,000	2,357,000 +	685,000	969,963	1,136,220
.....	2,185,000	3,243,000 +	1,058,000	1,364,518	2,199,313
14.12	2,624,000	3,926,000 +	1,302,000	868,329	583,459
1.84	48,336,000	67,846,000 +	19,510,000	3,753,222	7,155,839
93.00	198,364,000	134,720,000 -	63,644,000	22,698,282	26,182,113
2.22	10,695,000	18,487,000 +	7,792,000	2,923,404	3,140,043
11.84	58,826,000	77,849,000 +	19,023,000	21,769,572	62,341,942
3.48	116,726,000	85,730,000 -	30,996,000	14,812,900	68,494
3.74	7,029,000	8,811,000 +	1,782,000	1,347,850	1,823,166
5.03	73,229,000	87,081,000 +	13,852,000	667,577	10,854,628
39.15	45,191,000	39,117,000 -	6,074,000	(⁵)	(⁵)
.....	848,026,000	820,671,000 -	27,355,000	70,497,327	87,895,253
.....	64,228,000	60,804,000 -	3,424,000	⁶ 386,758	⁶ 461,102
.....	12,483,000	7,551,000 -	4,932,000	2,785,418	1,088,493
.....	46,808,000	35,806,000 -	11,002,000	62,361	3,873
19.73	41,964,000	40,677,000 -	1,287,000	174,264,495	111,999,904
.....	1,340,178,000	1,113,313,000 -	226,865,000	30,949	11,702
.....	8,969,000	4,497,000 -	4,472,000	369,919	1,229,144
20.71	26,034,000	15,466,000 -	10,568,000	1,956,343	1,122,641
5.17	5,500,000	12,760,000 +	7,260,000	4,866,683	51,831,665
2.07	255,614,000	408,396,000 +	152,782,000	33,135,512	33,612,864
9.75	342,718,000	284,177,000 -	58,541,000	21,622,603	40,597,582
3.36	135,322,000	127,326,000 -	7,996,000	257,130	
.....	5,030,000	6,881,000 +	1,851,000	42,227,786	(⁶) 61,802,902
.....	6,744,000	4,142,000 -	2,602,000	74,576,164	20,899,588
12.45	74,690,000	88,200,000 +	13,510,000	2,210,963	15,343,948
18.46	867,308,000	732,975,000 -	134,333,000	(⁷)	(⁷)
.....	86,894,000	98,724,000 +	11,830,000	14,815	3,890
8.66	77,779,000	45,687,000 -	32,092,000	2,573,289	2,826,493
16.67	2,270,000	3,787,000 +	1,517,000	2,915,897	3,229,813
.....	23,703,000	13,243,000 -	10,460,000	188,635	65
1.48	21,062,000	17,938,000 -	3,124,000	7,518,177	7,262,757
13.78	60,044,000	30,710,000 -	29,334,000	1,700,371	3,361,319
3.92	54,686,000	72,340,000 +	17,654,000	33,149	
6.03	305,614,000	392,215,000 +	86,601,000	15,976,788	8,787,621
10.49	2,987,000	5,224,000 +	2,237,000	9,530,137	4,193,307
3.12	8,650,000	13,920,000 +	5,270,000	203,357	19,864,767
39.32	15,782,000	21,103,000 +	5,321,000	354,457	2,359,830
21.08	175,487,000	161,297,000 -	14,190,000	523,773,397	180,249,114
10.35	134,605,000	105,154,000 -	29,451,000		
18.27	217,803,000	168,741,000 -	49,062,000	4,038,909	11,372,584
3.61	117,134,000	59,072,000 -	58,062,000	1,549,812	2,830,069
18.65	2,571,416,000	1,379,283,000 -	1,192,133,000	2,736,726	6,609,919
29.47	1,025,719,000	1,392,231,000 +	366,512,000		
3.87	32,972,000	33,122,000 +	150,000		
30.76	24,565,000	33,656,000 +	9,091,000		
9.73	8,560,000	14,900,000 +	6,340,000		
.....	\$11,621,366,000	\$10,266,667,000 -	\$1,354,699,000	\$1,356,965,925	\$1,003,224,820

⁵Included under Russia. ⁶French Africa. ⁷Included under Sweden.

(With Exports to and Imports from the United States, from

COUNTRIES, ETC.	Area in Square Miles.	Population.	Revenue, £	Expenditures, £
England and Wales	58,324	32,527,843
Scotland	29,796	4,472,103
Ireland	32,605	4,458,775
Islands	302	150,599
United Kingdom	121,027	41,609,320	151,551,698	184,483,708
Colonies ³	119	205,097	525,464	497,803
Total Europe ¹	121,146	41,814,417	152,077,162	184,981,511
Total Europe ²	121,146	42,577,643
India	1,087,404	231,898,807	76,344,525	71,394,282
Native States	679,393	62,461,549
Ceylon	25,365	3,565,954	1,813,204	1,869,474
Straits Settlements	1,472	572,249	661,020	650,201
Hong Kong	30	297,142	359,800	351,140
Other colonies ⁴	4,343	621,315	773,445	840,835
Protectorates	27,621	961,250	1,760,180	1,378,150
Total Asia	1,825,628	300,378,266	81,712,174	76,484,082
Cape Colony	276,995	2,433,000	9,050,371	8,617,626
Natal	36,170	925,118	3,439,820	3,097,601
Orange River	50,000	208,000	271,999	235,170
Transvaal	111,700	1,000,000	3,141,119	2,963,622
Other Colonies ⁵	79,019	1,533,942	1,095,566	1,046,351
Rhodesia	580,000	1,000,000	586,144	933,217
Protectorates	1,257,060	31,005,150	1,024,606	1,819,290
Total Africa	2,390,944	38,105,210	18,609,625	18,712,877
Canada	3,619,820	5,371,315	11,932,662	10,596,488
Newfoundland ⁶	162,734	220,249	450,891	470,641
Other colonies ⁷	19,592	1,638,294	2,402,164	2,332,700
Total North America	3,802,146	7,229,858	14,785,717	13,399,829
British Guiana ⁸	109,000	293,958	557,351	501,704
Falkland Islands	7,500	2,050	16,070	14,790
Total South America	116,500	296,008	573,421	516,494
New South Wales	310,700	1,359,133	12,486,575	12,348,359
Victoria	87,884	1,201,341	8,049,168	8,329,115
Queensland	668,497	496,596	4,242,295	4,674,234
South Australia	903,690	362,604	2,829,839	3,110,188
West Australia	975,920	184,124	3,936,926	3,694,363
Tasmania	26,215	172,475	896,593	1,011,223
Australian Commonwealth	2,972,906	3,776,273	32,441,396	33,167,482
New Zealand	104,471	772,719	6,506,752	6,331,607
New Guinea ⁹	90,540	350,000	16,868	31,346
Other Islands	41,740	320,124	203,413	251,021
Protectorates	50,800	630,000	102,200	97,300
Total Australasia	3,260,457	5,849,116	39,270,629	39,878,756
Summary:				
United Kingdom	121,027	42,372,556	151,551,698	184,483,708
India	1,766,797	294,360,356	76,344,525	71,394,282
Colonies with self government	7,173,096	13,498,674	63,821,892	62,281,445
Colonies with partial self government	125,460	2,692,419	4,120,713	4,057,501
Colonies without self government	380,960	7,715,706	7,645,870	7,390,976
Under charter	614,000	1,200,000	655,044	1,170,897
Protectorates, etc.	1,335,481	32,596,400	2,886,986	3,294,740
Total Empire	11,516,821	394,436,111	307,026,728	334,073,549

¹ 1901. ² 1903. ³ Malta Gibraltar. ⁴ Labuan, Mauritius, Cyprus. ⁵ Ascension, Gambia, Gold Coast, Lagos, Seychelles, Sierra Leone, St. Helena. ⁶ and Labrador. ⁷ Bahamas, Barbadoes.

MAN'S YEAR BOOK FOR 1904.

the U. S. Summary of Commerce and Finance, July, 1904.)

Debt, £	Imports, £	Exports, £	Imports from U. S., £	Exports to U. S., £ ¹⁰	Miles of Railway
798,349,190	581,874,048	399,680,556			22,152
79,168					8
798,428,358	581,874,048	399,680,556	107,556,241	32,86,408	22,160
229,686,346	74,091,655	92,702,825			22,689
4,976,842	7,297,884	6,626,859			3,242
341,800	30,022,550	25,750,889			369
1,182,984			2,082,509	408,905	
3,152,120	2,704,693	2,753,698			104
	3,661,130	6,094,100			300
239,340,092	117,777,912	133,028,371	3,423,759	9,943,733	26,704
36,970,929	34,220,500	17,456,131			2,648
12,519,143	15,656,052	3,653,790			643
15,000	1,663,103	110,030			
2,500,000	14,972,925	7,431,632			1,335
3,888,878	4,144,127	2,769,775			287
	1,443,053	679,600			586
100,000	3,426,510	3,243,339			584
55,993,950	75,526,270	35,344,297	4,141,553	169,800	6,083
75,307,020	43,633,310	43,503,836	26,542,869	10,281,253	18,714
4,038,595	1,610,874	1,963,574	525,613	227,011	659
6,207,900	8,008,429	6,759,744	2,384,832	1,787,319	302
85,553,515	53,252,613	52,227,154	29,453,314	12,295,583	19,675
991,320	1,371,388	1,757,053		289,222	95
	63,851	90,838			
991,320	1,435,239	1,847,891			95
66,108,359	25,974,210	23,544,051			3,107
50,408,957	18,270,245	18,210,523			3,294
39,387,177	7,352,538	9,171,023			2,974
26,448,045	6,181,000	7,890,072			1,882
14,942,310	7,218,352	9,051,358			1,989
9,111,649	2,442,745	3,244,508			620
206,406,497	67,439,090	71,111,535			13,866
55,899,019	11,326,723	13,644,977			2,404
2,378	70,817	68,300			
191,255	878,745	848,711			100
	413,600	580,430			
262,499,149	80,128,975	86,253,953	5,468,748	1,426,881	16,370
798,349,190	581,874,040	399,680,556			22,152
229,686,346	74,091,655	92,702,825			25,931
391,141,203	173,886,549	151,333,843			38,934
8,426,636	11,638,128	10,990,485			509
11,959,889	59,234,014	43,763,504			1,991
	1,769,423	993,140			686
3,252,120	7,501,240	9,917,869			884
1,442,815,384	909,95,049	709,382,222	149,755,615 ¹⁰	55,981,627 ¹⁰	91,087

Bermudas, British Honduras, Jamaica, Leeward Islands, Trinidad, Windward Islands,⁸ and S. Georgia. ⁹ Fiji and British North Borneo. ¹⁰ So far as tabulated.

AREA, DENSITY AND POPUL

STATE OR TERRITORY	Land surface in square miles, 1900	Density of population, 1900 ¹	Rank in population, 1900	1900	1890 ²	1880 ³
United States.....	3,567,563	76,303,387	62,979,766	50,155,783
Density.....	25.6	25.6	21.2	17.3
Alabama.....	51,540	35.5	18	1,828,697	1,513,401	1,262,505
Arizona.....	112,920	1.1	49	122,931	88,243	40,440
Arkansas.....	53,045	24.7	25	1,311,564	1,128,211	802,525
California.....	156,172	9.5	21	1,485,053	1,213,398	864,694
Colorado.....	103,645	5.2	31	539,700	413,249	194,327
Connecticut.....	4,845	187.5	29	908,420	746,258	622,700
Delaware.....	1,960	94.3	46	184,735	168,493	146,608
District of Columbia.....	4,645.3	60	42	278,718	230,392	177,624
Florida.....	54,240	9.7	32	528,542	391,422	269,493
Georgia.....	58,980	37.6	11	2,216,331	1,837,353	1,542,180
Idaho.....	84,290	1.9	47	161,772	88,548	32,610
Illinois.....	56,000	86.1	3	4,821,550	3,826,352	3,077,871
Indiana.....	35,910	70.1	8	2,516,462	2,192,404	1,978,301
Indian Territory.....	31,000	12.6	39	392,060	180,182
Iowa.....	55,475	40.2	10	2,231,853	1,912,297	1,624,615
Kansas.....	81,700	18.0	22	1,470,495	1,428,108	996,096
Kentucky.....	40,000	53.7	12	2,147,174	1,858,635	1,648,690
Louisiana.....	45,420	30.4	23	1,381,625	1,118,588	939,946
Maine.....	29,895	23.2	30	694,466	661,086	648,936
Maryland.....	9,860	120.5	26	1,188,044	1,042,390	934,943
Massachusetts.....	8,040	348.9	7	2,805,346	2,238,947	1,783,085
Michigan.....	57,430	42.2	9	2,420,982	2,093,890	1,636,937
Minnesota.....	79,205	22.1	19	1,751,394	1,310,283	780,773
Mississippi.....	46,340	33.5	20	1,551,270	1,289,600	1,131,597
Missouri.....	68,735	45.2	5	3,106,665	2,679,185	2,168,380
Montana.....	145,310	1.7	44	243,329	142,924	39,159
Nebraska.....	76,840	13.9	27	1,066,300	1,062,656	452,402
Nevada.....	109,740	0.4	52	42,335	47,355	62,266
New Hampshire.....	9,005	45.7	36	411,588	376,530	346,991
New Jersey.....	7,525	250.3	16	1,883,669	1,444,933	1,131,116
New Mexico.....	122,460	1.6	45	195,310	160,282	119,565
New York.....	47,620	152.6	1	7,268,894	6,003,174	5,082,871
North Carolina.....	48,580	39.0	15	1,893,810	1,617,949	1,399,750
North Dakota.....	70,195	4.5	41	319,146	190,983	36,909
Ohio.....	40,760	102.0	4	4,157,545	3,672,329	3,198,062
Oklahoma.....	38,830	10.3	38	398,331	78,475
Oregon.....	94,560	4.4	35	413,536	317,704	174,768
Pennsylvania.....	44,985	140.1	2	6,302,115	5,258,113	4,282,831
Rhode Island.....	1,053	407.0	34	428,556	345,506	276,591
South Carolina.....	30,170	44.4	24	1,340,316	1,151,149	995,577
South Dakota.....	76,850	5.2	37	401,570	348,600	98,268
Tennessee.....	41,750	48.4	14	2,020,616	1,767,518	1,542,359
Texas.....	262,290	11.6	6	3,048,710	2,235,527	1,591,749
Utah.....	82,190	3.4	43	276,749	210,779	143,963
Vermont.....	9,135	37.6	40	343,641	332,422	332,286
Virginia.....	40,125	46.2	17	1,854,184	1,655,980	1,512,565
Washington.....	66,880	7.7	33	518,103	357,232	75,116
West Virginia.....	24,645	38.9	28	958,800	762,794	618,457
Wisconsin.....	54,450	38.0	13	2,069,042	1,693,330	1,315,497
Wyoming.....	97,575	0.9	50	92,531	62,555	20,789
Alaska.....	7590,884	0.1	51	63,592	32,052	33,426
Hawaii.....	76,449	23.9	48	154,001	(8)

¹ From Census Reports.² Figures include population of Alaska, Indian Territory, and Indian reservations.³ Figures exclude population of Alaska, Indian Territory, and Indian reservations.⁴ Population of Alaska excluded.

SOCIAL PROGRESS

ATION OF UNITED STATES.¹

1870	1860	1850	1840	1830	1820	1810	1800	1790
38,558,371	31,443,321	23,191,876	17,069,453	12,866,020	9,638,453	7,239,881	5,308,483	3,929,214
13.3	10.8	7.9	8.4	6.4	4.8	3.7	6.6	4.9
996,992	964,201	771,623	590,756	309,527	127,901
9,658
484,471	435,450	209,897	97,574	30,388	14,273
560,247	379,994	92,597
39,864	34,277
537,454	460,147	370,792	309,978	297,675	275,248	261,942	251,002	237,946
125,015	112,216	91,532	78,085	76,748	72,749	72,674	64,273	59,096
131,700	75,080	51,687	43,712	39,834	33,039	24,023	14,093
187,748	140,424	87,445	54,477	34,730
1,184,109	1,057,286	906,185	691,392	516,823	340,989	252,433	162,686	82,548
14,999
2,539,891	1,711,951	851,470	476,183	157,445	55,211	12,282
1,680,637	1,350,428	988,416	685,866	343,031	147,178	24,520	5,641
1,194,020	674,913	192,214	43,112
364,399	107,206
1,321,011	1,155,684	982,405	779,828	687,917	564,317	406,511	220,955	73,677
726,915	708,002	517,762	352,411	215,739	153,407	76,556
626,915	628,279	583,169	501,793	399,455	298,335	228,705	151,719	96,540
780,894	687,049	583,034	470,019	447,040	407,350	380,546	341,548	319,728
1,457,351	1,231,066	994,514	737,699	610,408	523,287	472,040	422,845	378,787
1,184,059	749,113	397,654	212,267	31,639	8,896	4,762
439,706	172,023	6,077
827,922	791,305	606,526	375,651	136,621	75,448	40,352	8,850
1,721,295	1,182,012	682,044	383,702	140,455	66,586	20,845
20,595
122,993	28,841
42,491	6,857
318,300	326,073	317,976	284,574	269,328	244,161	214,460	183,858	141,885
906,096	672,035	489,555	373,206	320,823	277,575	245,562	211,149	184,139
91,874	93,516	61,547
4,382,759	3,880,735	3,097,394	2,428,921	1,918,608	1,372,812	959,049	589,051	340,120
1,071,361	992,622	869,039	753,419	737,987	638,829	555,500	478,103	393,751
2,405	(e)
2,665,260	2,339,511	1,980,329	1,519,467	937,903	581,434	230,760	45,365
90,923	52,465	13,294
3,521,951	2,906,215	2,311,786	1,724,033	1,348,233	1,049,458	810,091	602,365	434,373
217,353	174,620	147,545	108,830	97,199	83,059	76,931	69,122	68,825
705,606	703,708	668,507	594,98	581,185	502,741	415,115	345,591	249,073
11,776	(e)
1,258,520	1,109,801	1,002,717	829,210	681,904	422,823	261,727	105,602	35,691
818,579	604,215	212,592
86,786	40,273	11,380
330,551	315,098	314,120	291,948	280,652	235,981	217,895	154,465	85,425
1,225,163	1,596,318	1,421,661	1,239,797	1,211,405	1,065,366	974,600	880,20	747,610
23,955	11,594
442,014
1,054,670	775,881	305,391	30,945
9,118

⁶Population of Dakota territory, 1860, 4,837. ⁷Land and water surface. ⁸Hawaii had a population of 89,990 according to the census Hawaiian, 1890.
 The U. S. Census estimates Porto Rico, 953,243; Philippine Islands, 6,961,339; Guam, 9,000; Samoa, 6,100. The Treasury estimate of the population of the U. S. for Feb. 1, 1905, is 82,678,000.

SOCIAL PROGRESS

A hundred years ago our population of 6,000,000 was a thin fringe along the Atlantic slope, and Ohio was the far frontier. Since then, homes have been built and furnished for 75,000,000 people. More than four and a half million farms have been brought under cultivation. For forty years there was an average of 16,000 acres of wild land subdued daily. Half a thousand cities have been built. It has taken thousands of years to make Europe, but Americans have brought as vast an area under civilization in one century. Henry M. Stanley says: "Treble their number of ordinary Europeans could not have surpassed them in what they have done. The story of their achievements reads like an epic of the heroic age."

FROM THE CENSUS OF 1900.

POPULATION CLASSIFIED BY SEX, BY RACE, AND BY NATIVITY: 1900, 1890, AND 1880 FOR CONTINENTAL UNITED STATES.

SEX, RACE, OR NATIVITY	POPULATION			PER CENT. OF POPULATION			PER CENT. OF INCREASE	
	1900	1890 ¹	1880	1900	1890	1880	1890 to 1900	1880 to 1890
Total.....	75,994,575	62,947,714	50,155,783	100.0	100.0	100.0	20.7	24.9
Male.....	38,816,448	32,237,101	25,518,820	51.1	51.2	50.9	20.4	25.7
Female.....	37,178,127	30,710,613	24,636,963	48.9	48.8	49.1	21.1	24.0
White.....	66,809,196	55,101,258	43,402,970	87.9	87.5	86.6	21.2	26.7
Negro.....	8,833,994	7,488,676	6,580,793	11.6	11.9	13.1	18.0	13.5
Indian.....	237,196	248,253	66,407	0.3	0.4	0.1	24.5	211.4
Mongolian.....	114,189	109,527	105,613	0.2	0.2	0.2	4.3	3.7
Chinese.....	89,863	107,488	105,465	0.1	0.2	0.2	216.4	1.9
Japanese.....	24,326	2,039	148	(³)	(³)	(³)	1,093.0	1,277.7
Native.....	65,653,299	53,698,154	43,475,840	86.4	85.3	86.7	22.3	22.8
Foreign born....	10,341,276	9,249,560	6,679,943	13.6	14.7	13.3	11.8	38.5

¹Figures include the population of Indian Territory and Indian reservations, not enumerated in 1880. ²Decrease. ³Less than one-tenth of one per cent.

POPULATION CLASSIFIED BY NATIVITY: 1900 AND 1890.

STATE OR TERRITORY	1900		1900 PER CENT.		1890 to 1900 PER CENT. OF INCREASE		1900	
	Native	Foreign born	Nat-ive	For-eign born	Nat-ive	For-eign born	NAT-IVE	FOR- EIGN BORN
							Per cent. male	Per cent. male
Continental U. S.....	65,653,299	10,341,276	86.4	13.6	22.3	11.8	50.5	54.4
N. Atlantic Division....	16,283,899	4,762,796	77.4	22.6	20.5	22.5	49.5	51.6
S. Atlantic Division....	10,227,450	216,030	97.9	2.1	18.2	3.6	49.9	55.5
N. Central Division.....	22,174,530	4,158,474	84.2	15.8	20.8	2.4	50.9	55.1
S. Central Division.....	13,722,392	357,655	97.5	2.5	26.5	11.1	50.8	57.4
Western Division.....	3,245,028	846,321	79.3	20.7	39.2	9.8	53.7	65.5

In 1900, 18.8 per cent. of native whites had both parents foreign born and 98. one parent foreign born. The numbers were 10,632,280 and 5,013,377.

Note furthermore that 13.7 per cent. of our people are foreign born and 27.5 born of foreign parents. In the N. Atlantic division 22.6 are foreign born and from 1890 to 1900 in this section the growth of the native population was not equal to the growth of the foreign. In the West, however, the proportion of the native born is naturally rising, as these States become settled.

MOVEMENT OF POPULATION.

STATE OR TERRITORY	PER CENT. OF NATIVE WHITE POPULATION BORN—			PER CENT. OF NATIVE NEGRO POPULATION BORN—		
	Within state or territory of residence	Without state or territory of residence	State or territory of birth unknown	Within state or territory of residence	Without state or territory of residence	State or territory of birth unknown
United States.....	78.1	21.6	0.3	84.0	15.7	0.3
Continental U. S.....	78.2	21.5	0.3	84.1	15.6	0.3
N. Atlantic Division	87.2	12.5	0.3	45.6	53.9	0.5
S. Atlantic Division..	87.9	12.0	0.1	91.2	8.6	0.2
N. Central Division..	74.0	25.7	0.3	54.8	44.6	0.6
S. Central Division..	75.5	24.3	0.2	85.1	14.6	0.3
Western Division....	49.3	49.9	0.8	23.8	74.6	1.6

FOREIGN BORN POPULATION OF U. S.

CLASSIFIED BY PRINCIPAL COUNTRIES OF BIRTH.

COUNTRY OF BIRTH	FOREIGN-BORN POPULATION						PER CENT. OF INCREASE	
	1850	1860	1870	1880	1890	1900	1880 to 1890	1890 to 1900
Total.....	2,244,602	4,138,697	5,567,229	6,679,943	9,249,547	10,341,276	38.5	11.8
Austria.....	946	25,061	30,508	38,663	123,271	275,907	218.8	123.8
Bohemia.....			40,289	85,361	118,106	156,891	38.4	32.8
Canada ¹	147,711	249,970	493,464	717,157	678,442	784,741	36.8	15.7
Canada ²					302,496	395,066		30.6
China.....	758	35,565	63,042	104,468	106,688	81,534	2.1	23.6
Denmark.....	1,838	9,962	30,107	64,196	132,543	153,805	106.5	16.0
England.....	278,675	433,494	555,046	664,160	909,092	840,513	36.9	7.5
France.....	54,069	109,870	116,402	106,971	113,174	104,197	5.8	7.9
Germany.....	583,774	1,276,075	1,690,533	1,966,742	2,784,894	2,663,418	41.6	34.4
Holland.....	9,848	28,281	46,802	58,090	81,828	104,931	40.9	28.2
Hungary.....			3,737	11,526	62,435	145,714	441.7	133.4
Ireland.....	961,719	1,611,304	1,855,827	1,854,571	1,871,509	1,615,459	0.9	13.7
Italy.....	3,645	10,518	17,157	44,230	182,580	484,027	312.8	165.1
Mexico.....	13,317	27,466	42,435	68,399	77,853	103,393	13.8	32.8
Norway.....	12,678	43,995	114,246	181,729	322,665	336,388	77.6	4.3
Poland.....		7,298	14,436	48,557	147,440	383,407	203.6	160.0
Russia.....	1,414	3,160	4,644	35,722	182,644	423,726	411.3	132.0
Scotland.....	70,550	108,518	140,835	170,136	242,231	233,524	42.4	3.6
Sweden.....	3,559	18,625	97,332	194,337	478,041	572,014	146.0	19.7
Switzerland.....	13,358	53,327	75,153	88,621	104,069	115,593	17.4	11.1
Wales.....	29,868	45,763	74,533	83,302	100,079	93,586	20.1	3.6
Other Countries.	56,875	40,445	60,701	93,005	127,467	273,442	37.1	11.4

¹Canada and Newfoundland, English. ²Canada and Newfoundland, French. ³Decrease.

SOCIAL PROGRESS

IMMIGRATION STATISTICS.

IMMIGRATION INTO THE U. S. BY DECADES.

(Compiled from Reports of the Commissioner General of Immigration.)

COUNTRY OF BIRTH	1821-1860	1861-1870	1871-1880	1881-1890	1891-1900	1901-1904
Austria-Hungary	116,927	7,800	72,969	353,719	592,707	668,546
Canada and Newfoundland	1,545,508	153,871	383,269	392,802	3,064	5,071
Germany	791,907	787,468	718,182	1,452,970	505,152	136,421
Great Britain	1,952,943	606,896	548,043	807,357	207,019	116,968
Ireland	13,762	435,778	436,871	655,482	390,179	131,152
Italy	41,646	11,728	55,759	307,309	651,899	738,289
Norway, Sweden and Denmark	3,014	126,392	243,016	656,494	371,512	231,015
Russia and Poland	588,316	4,536	52,254	265,088	602,010	473,738
All other Countries		180,355	301,828	355,392	301,022	305,377
Total	5,054,023	2,314,824	2,812,191	5,246,613	3,687,564	2,806,577

1900-1904.

COUNTRIES	1900	1901	1902	1903	1904
Austria-Hungary	114,847	113,390	171,989	206,011	177,156
Belgium	1,196	1,579	2,577	3,450	3,976
Denmark	2,926	3,655	5,660	7,158	8,525
France, including Corsica	1,739	3,150	3,117	5,578	9,406
German Empire	18,507	21,651	28,304	40,086	46,380
Greece	3,771	5,910	8,104	14,090	11,343
Italy, including Sicily and Sardinia	100,135	135,996	178,375	230,622	193,296
Netherlands	1,735	2,349	2,284	3,998	4,916
Norway	9,575	12,248	17,484	24,461	23,808
Portugal, including Cape Verde and Azore Islands	4,234	4,165	5,307	9,317	6,715
Roumania	6,459	7,155	7,196	9,310	7,087
Russian Empire and Finland	90,787	85,257	85,257	136,093	145,141
Servia, Bulgaria and Montenegro	108	657	851	1,761	1,325
Spain	355	592	975	2,080	3,996
Sweden	18,650	23,331	30,894	46,028	27,763
Switzerland	1,152	2,201	2,344	3,983	5,023
Turkey in Europe	285	387	187	1,529	4,344
United Kingdom:					
England	9,951	12,214	13,575	26,219	28,626
Ireland	35,730	30,561	29,138	35,310	36,142
Scotland	1,792	2,070	2,560	6,143	11,092
Wales	764	701	763	1,275	1,730
Europe, not specified	2	18	37	5	143
Total Europe	424,700	469,237	419,068	814,507	767,933
China	1,247	2,459	1,649	2,209	4,309
Japan	12,635	5,269	14,270	19,968	14,264
Other Asia	4,064	5,865	6,352	7,789	7,613
Total Asia	17,946	13,593	22,271	29,966	26,186
Africa	30	173	37	176	686
Australia, Tasmania, New Zealand, and Pacific Islands, not specified		498	566	1,349	1,495
British North America		540	636	1,058	2,837
Central America	42	150	305	678	714
Mexico	237	347	709	528	1,009
South America	124	203	337	589	1,667
West Indies	4,656	3,176	4,711	8,170	10,193
All Other Countries	441	1	103	25	90
Total immigrants	448,572	487,918	648,743	857,046	812,870

More than one-quarter of recent immigration is Italian, nearly one-quarter Hungarian; more than one-half are Italian, Hungarian or Russian (largely Hebrew). Their percentage of illiteracy is respectively 43, 24 and 25 per cent.

Of the whole number of immigrants in the fiscal year ending June 30, 1904, 606,019 came

through the customs district of New York, 55,940 through Baltimore, 60,278 through Boston, 19,467 through Philadelphia, 9,036 through San Francisco, and 31,756 through other ports; also 30,374 through Canadian ports.

The reported occupations of immigrants arriving during the fiscal year 1904 were as follows: Laborers, 210,426; servants, 104,937; farm laborers, 85,850; tailors, 23,508; merchants and dealers, 19,848; carpenters, 13,404; shoemakers, 10,567; clerks, 10,420; mariners, 10,326; miners, 9,110. The number of professional immigrants (including 1,169 actors, 2,226 engineers, 1,419 musicians, and 1,983 teachers) was 13,265; of skilled laborers, 152,191; miscellaneous (including unskilled), 432,722; no occupation (including children under fourteen years of age), 214,692.

The total number of alien immigrants refused admission to the United States in the fiscal year ending 1904 was 7,994, of which 4,798 were paupers or persons likely to become public charges, 1,560 persons with loathsome or contagious diseases, 1,501 contract laborers, 33 insane, 16 idiots, 35 convicts, 9 prostitutes, 3 persons who attempted to bring in prostitutes, 33 assisted immigrants, 300 returned in one year after landing, 479 returned within three years because here in violation of law.

COMPILED FROM THE U. S. BULLETIN OF COMMERCE AND FINANCE FOR APRIL, 1904.

The largest elements in recent immigration were:

	1899	1900	1901	1902	1903
Southern Italian.....	65,639	84,346	115,704	152,915	196,117
Polish.....	28,466	46,938	43,617	69,620	82,343
Scandinavian.....	23,249	32,952	40,277	55,780	79,347
Hebrew.....	37,415	60,764	58,098	57,688	76,203
German.....	26,632	29,682	34,742	51,686	71,782
Irish.....	32,345	35,607	30,404	29,001	35,366
Slovak.....	15,838	27,243	29,343	36,934	34,427
Croatian and Slovenian.....	8,632	17,184	17,928	30,233	32,907
Average money brought.....				\$16.	\$19.
Per cent. of immigrants who have been in the United States before.....				9.5	8.9

QUOTATIONS.

The United States Industrial Commission, which made one of the most thorough studies of immigration ever undertaken, says in its Final Report that "it is a hasty assumption which holds that immigration during the nineteenth century has increased the total population." In his new book, "The Slav Invasion and the Mine Workers," Dr. P. J. Warne says that the coming of the Slavs into the mining districts of Pennsylvania since 1880 has determined the number of births in the older, English-speaking portion of the population. More recently still, Mr. Henry Gannett, well known for his statistical work in connection with the Census, in a hitherto unpublished statement, says:

I do not think that our population has been materially, if at all, increased by immigration. On the contrary, I think that our population would be almost, if not quite, as numerous if the great flood of immigration which began in 1847 had never reached our shores.

Mr. Gannett believes that the mixture of our blood with that of Germany, Ireland and Scandinavia has been an advantage, but he also believes that a mixture with the blood of the "new" immigration "can have only a bad effect." Finally, in a recent article, Mr. Robert Hunter, of the University Settlement in New York, puts the case very clearly as follows:

The fathers and mothers of the American children can be chosen, and it is in the power of Congress to decide upon what merits. . . . No nation has ever had a social responsibility of greater magnitude. The future of American society, industry, religious faith, political institutions, may be decided in a way quite marvellous by the governing powers of this country. The worst aspect of the whole matter is that the selfish forces interested in promoting immigration in every conceivable way, are deciding all these questions for us. The ones who come and the numbers who come depend largely upon the steamship companies. Whether we have more Hungarians than Italians, or Syrians than Greeks, or Scandinavians than Slavs, depends to a very large extent upon their ports, their passage rates and their success in advertising and soliciting. . . . I believe that this country may be ruined by leaving the volume and quality of immigration almost entirely to the decision of the steamship companies. . . . The skill of their agents decides whether we shall have one race or another come in great masses to our shores. . . . If we let the steamship companies and the railroads, wanting cheap labor, alone, we shall not decide

what immigrants will be better for coming, and what ones the country needs. They will decide it for us. . . . Our governing bodies . . . in the past . . . have failed to consider the welfare of the people, either immigrants or Americans. The decision has been made as a result of pressure brought to bear upon public officials by private and selfish interests. Our national characteristics may be changed; our love of freedom, our religion, our inventive faculties, our standard of life. All of the things, in fact, for which America has been more or less distinctive among the nations, may be entirely altered. Our race may be supplanted by another, by an Asiatic one, for instance, and not because it is better so, nor because it is for the world's good. On the contrary, it is in order that individuals interested in steamships may be benefited, and in order that employers may have cheaper labor. These selfish forces may be disguised, but they are there.

A NOVEL PLEA FOR IMMIGRATION.

BY ERNEST CROSBY OF IN THE ARENA.

"Immigrant children learn quickly in our schools, and most of them, especially the Jews from Eastern Europe, and the Italians, take high positions, holding their own, as a rule, with our native-born children. Where we do fall short too often is in physique. More of us are hollow-chested, sloping-shouldered, and nervous than is the case with the ordinary European, and especially with the peasant. From the purely scientific standpoint of breeding, we have every interest to admit the sturdy farm hand, just as we import the Percheron horse or the Southdown sheep. Whether the man can read and write or understand the Constitution is a matter of trifling importance in comparison. His children will learn all that quickly enough. But he will not know how to vote, we are told. When you consider the fact, however, that nearly one-half of our educated Americans vote diametrically against the other half, it is hard to see how the addition of a few uneducated voters can do much harm. Whichever way the ballot of the immigrant is cast, he will have about half of the American people with him, and they should bear the responsibility for the result, not he. Examinations in the three 'R's' let in the anemic crook and sharper and 'shyster lawyer,' the gambler and the pawnbroker, and all that precious parasitic fraternity which lives by its wits and gravitates to the cities, shutting out the independent, self-supporting, brawny son of the soil whom most we need. I can not in justice overlook our faults nor be blind to the fact that the good points of other races supply our deficiencies, and I have already hinted at some of them. In the great century of music, none of our blood produced a work of even the third class. We have never had a painter who could rank among the first score or two of great artists. We must go to Germany for our highest philosophy and to France for the most finished elegance of thought and manners. We know little of the joy of living. We take our holidays sadly, and laugh with mental reservations. The Europeans come to us with a new capacity for mirth, a genius for jovialty and sociability. Are these ingredients to be despised? For a few years he may navigate our streets with his hand-organ or his plaster-casts and frequent his genial *cafe*, but before long he must fit himself to our Procrustean bed, and at last we find him at work in the regulation store or at rest before the rigid bar or at the taciturn dairy-lunch counter. Is it desirable that we should compass sea and land in this way to make a proselyte? Should we reduce the whole world to one dead level? And not content with stifling the originality of the immigrant, we must needs carry our missionary zeal for uniformity to foreign lands in the hope of destroying all individuality. In Anglo-Saxonizing India and Japan we are crushing out the most wonderful of arts beyond a possibility of resurrection. We are the Goths and Vandals of the day. We are the Tartars and the Turks. And the countries which we overrun have each its own priceless heritage of art and legend which we ruthlessly stamp under foot."

IMMIGRATION.

FOR YEAR ENDING DECEMBER 1904.

Austria-Hungary.....	165,793	Scotland	14,451
Belgium.....	4,286	Wales.....	2,290
Denmark.....	9,179	Europe not specified.....	9
France.....	9,971		
German Empire.....	42,829	Total Europe.....	758,591
Greece.....	9,619	Total Asia.....	25,237
Italy.....	156,764		
Netherlands.....	4,758	Africa.....	996
Norway.....	24,152	Australia, Tasmania, etc.....	1,809
Portugal, etc.....	5,533	Philippine Islands.....	121
Roumania.....	5,135	Pacific islands, not specified.....	83
Russia.....	161,610	British North America.....	3,070
Servia, Bulgaria, etc.....	1,254	Central America.....	995
Spain.....	2,892	Mexico.....	1,814
Sweden.....	23,780	South America.....	2,492
Switzerland.....	4,485	West Indies.....	13,663
Turkey in Europe.....	3,072	Other Countries.....	128
United Kingdom:			
England.....	57,310	Grand Total.....	808,999
Ireland.....	49,419		

MARRIAGE, BIRTH AND DEATH RATES. PRINCIPAL COUNTRIES.

ANNUAL AVERAGE

STATISTICS FOR 1891-1900. FOR EACH 1,000 INHABITANTS.

(Compiled from the Statistical Year Book of the German Empire, 1903.)

COUNTRIES	Marriages	Births ¹	Deaths ¹	Surplus of Births
Austria	8.0	37.1	26.6	10.6
Hungary	8.7	40.4	29.7	10.7
Belgium	7.9	28.9	19.1	9.8
Denmark	7.2	30.2	17.4	12.7
France	7.5	22.1	21.5	0.6
Germany	8.2	36.1	22.2	13.9
Italy	7.3	35.3	24.7	10.6
Netherlands	7.3	32.5	18.4	14.2
Norway	6.6	30.4	16.2	14.2
Russia (Europe)	8.6	47.1	33.5	13.6
Finland	6.9	32.0	19.4	12.7
Servia	9.7	41.5	27.2	14.4
Spain	8.0	35.3	30.0	5.3
Sweden	5.9	27.1	16.3	10.8
Switzerland	7.7	28.7	19.4	9.3
England and Wales	7.8	30.0	18.2	11.7
Ireland	4.8	23.0	18.2	4.8
Scotland	7.2	30.7	18.7	11.9

¹ Not including still-born.

THE UNITED STATES.

The United States had a birth-rate of 31.5 in the census year of 1880, though all census birth rates are admittedly too low. For 1890 it was 26.68. The birth-rate for 1900 was 27.2. Few of the States publish records of births. The birth-rate for Connecticut averaged 23.6 for 1850-60; 22.7, 1861-70; 24.6, 1871-80; 23.0, 1881-90; 24.1, 1891-1900, and 22.4 for 1901-1902.

In Rhode Island, owing probably to immigration, the birth-rate has somewhat risen. In 1870 it was 24.0; in 1880, 22.9; 1890, 24.7; 1900, 25.8. In Massachusetts it has fallen. It was 28.08 in 1851; 29.28, in 1860; 26.25, in 1870; 24.80, 1880; 25.81, 1890; 26.16, 1900, and 24.58, 1902.

Comparing the statistics of Europe for 1896 and the U. S. 1890, the countries with the highest birth-rates were Russia, Hungary, Austria, and those with the lowest, France, Ireland, the United States, Sweden. Birth statistics are evidently effected by the extent to which prevention of births is practiced in different countries, but generally speaking the more uncivilized the race, the higher the birth-rate. In India the birth-rate is said to be 48. In the U. S. in 1890, it was 26.35 for whites, 29.07 for colored, and 38.29 for whites with both parents foreign. But all rates of the census are undoubtedly too low, owing to faulty registration.

Birth-rates also undoubtedly vary with economic conditions. Von Meyr showed that births in Bavaria from 1835 to 1860 rose and fell diversely with the price of rye.

M. Leroy-Beaulieu shows statistically that "a low birth-rate goes hand in hand with high wages and the spread of education," and that "it also appears to be particularly associated with democratic aspirations, and still more with a lessening of religious belief on the part of the people and a modification of the old ideas of resignation and submission to their lot."

Dr. John S. Billings says: "It is probable that the most important factor in the change is the deliberate and voluntary avoidance or prevention of child-bearing on the part of a steadily increasing number of married people, who not only prefer to have but few children, but who know how to obtain their wish."

Dr. Cyrus M. Edson agrees with Dr. Billings that "the voluntary avoidance and prevention of child-bearing is steadily increasing," but thinks that the principal cause is the physical and nervous deterioration of the women of the United States; and this, he asserts, is largely due to the severe strain of modern life and education."

(For references for these quotations, see article by J. L. Brownell, *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Sciences*, July, 1894.)

BIRTHS PER 1,000 MARRIED WOMEN.

(From Report of the Royal Commission on the Decline of the Birth Rate and Mortality of Infants in New South Wales.)

AGE OF MOTHER	1881	1891	1901
20-24	458	416	397
25-29	415	354	299
30-34	339	292	227
35-39	274	236	173

The commission states that they found the practice of "prevention" to be general among all classes. They consider it the principal factor in the declining birth rate. The people seem to think that in the deliberate curtailing reproduction they have found a panacea for the ills of life.

ILLEGITIMACY.

THE FOLLOWING TABLE IS FROM DR. ALBERT LEFFINGWELL'S "ILLEGITIMACY," EXCEPT THE LAST COLUMN:

NUMBER TO EACH 1,000 BIRTHS (STILL-BIRTHS EXCLUDED).

	1869	1870	1885	1886	1887	1888	1889	1896 ¹
Ireland.....	29	27	28	27	28	29	28	26
Russia.....	28	28	28	27	28	27	27	31
Holland.....	36	35	31	32	32	31	33	29
Switzerland ¹			50	49	48	48	47	45
England and Wales.....	58	56	48	47	48	46	46	42
Spain.....	56	55						
Italy.....	60	64	76	75	75	74	73	64
France.....	75	75	80	82	82	85	84	88
Belgium.....	71	72	87	87	88	87	88	87
Prussia ¹	78	79	82	82	82	80	80
Hungary.....	70	68	84	83	84	84	85	85
Scotland.....	98	96	85	82	83	81	79	72
Norway.....	85	91	79	79	77	76	74	71
Denmark.....	114	111	100	97	97	93	93	101
Sweden.....	102	104	104	102	105	102	101	107
Saxony.....	136	137	130	129	128	125	125
Bavaria ¹	179	164	139	139	138	140	141
Austria.....	138	131	147	147	147	146	147	145

¹Mulhall's *Dictionary of Statistics*. He does not give figures for Prussia, Bavaria, etc., but gives Germany 91.

According to the *Bulletin de l'Inst.*, etc., vol. vii., illegitimacy is increasing in Italy, France, Austria, Hungary, Belgium, Roumania, Servia, and Massachusetts, and decreasing in England, Scotland, Holland, Norway, and Denmark.

For the United States we have few statistics. Mulhall puts the rate at 70 for the period 1865-78. Statistics of illegitimacy, however, do not always furnish a true test of immorality. They are obviously affected, as in France, *e.g.*, by the extent to which births are prevented. They are also affected, by the difficulties attendant upon legal marriage, as in Bavaria.

Says Dr. Leffingwell (pp 41-42):

Does the reader believe that the highest appreciation of chastity depends upon the spiritual acceptance of Calvinistic theology; in reverence for the sanctity of the Sabbath, and abhorrence of the Papacy? Let him ponder over the statistics of Scotland, and explain why this land of strictest Sabbath-keeping and purest Calvinism exhibits double the illegitimacy of England every year . . . Does he claim that the infallible creed of the Roman Catholic Church insures its adherents' superiority in morals? Then upon this hypothesis he must explain why Austria and Bavaria are so low down on this scale. . . . Many countries where popular education is widely diffused among all classes, such as Denmark, Norway and Sweden, Prussia, Saxony and Scotland, show a high rate of illegitimacy, while in some others, such as Russia and Ireland, the rate is very low. . . .

DEATH RATE PER 1,000 POPULATION

(From U. S. Census Bulletin 15, 1904.)

	1890	Twenty-five years 1876-1900	1900
Austria.....	29.4	28.6	25.4
Belgium.....	20.6	20.1	19.3
Denmark.....	19.0	18.3	16.9
England and Wales.....	19.5	19.1	18.2
France.....	22.8	21.9	21.9
German Empire.....	24.4	24.2	22.1
Prussia.....	24.0	23.7	21.8
Hungary.....	32.4	32.3	26.9
Ireland.....	18.2	18.2	19.6
Italy.....	26.4	26.5	23.8
Netherlands.....	20.5	20.3	17.8
Norway.....	17.9	16.6	15.9
Scotland.....	19.7	19.2	18.5
Spain.....	32.5	30.3	28.7
Sweden.....	17.1	17.0	16.8
Switzerland.....	20.8	20.6	19.3
United States (registration area).....	19.6	17.8

Average for twenty years, 1878-1884, 1888-1900.

In 1900 the registration was more complete. The "registration" area means areas where there are adequate official returns. "Non-registration" areas are those where the census enumerators made the reports, or where the official reports were too defective to be adequate. The registration area now covers 29,000,000 of the population and in the registration area it is estimated that the death rate of 1900 was 17.8, but the census states that as the non-registration area was largely rural the real death rate was between 17.8 and 15.4, (the rural registration rate).

DEATHS AND DEATH RATES FROM CERTAIN CAUSES, FOR THE REGISTRATION AREA, 1900 AND 1890.

(From Twelfth Census.)

CAUSE	NUMBER OF DEATHS		DEATH RATE PER 100,000		INCREASE OR DECREASE IN DEATH RATE, 1890 TO 1900	
	1900	1890	1900	1890	Increase	Decrease
Pneumonia.....	55,296	36,752	191.9	186.9	5.0
Consumption ¹	54,898	48,236	190.5	245.4	54.9
Heart disease ²	38,608	23,939	134.0	121.8	12.2
Diarrhoeal diseases ³	24,509	20,457	85.1	104.1	19.0
Diseases of the kidneys ⁴	24,124	11,736	83.7	59.7	24.0
Apoplexy.....	19,173	9,631	66.6	49.0	17.6
Cancer.....	17,296	9,410	60.0	47.9	12.1
Old age.....	15,558	8,823	54.0	44.9	9.1
Bronchitis.....	13,903	14,632	48.3	74.4	26.1
(cholera infantum).....	13,758	15,659	47.8	79.7	31.9
Lebility and atrophy.....	13,108	17,427	45.5	88.6	43.1
Inflammation of the brain and meningitis.....	12,026	9,666	41.8	49.1	7.3
Diphtheria.....	10,201	12,786	35.4	70.1	34.7
Typhoid fever.....	9,749	9,097	33.8	46.3	12.5
Influenza.....	6,882	1,215	23.9	6.2	17.7
Diseases of the brain.....	5,357	6,055	18.6	30.9	12.3
Croup.....	2,830	5,432	9.8	27.6	17.8
Malarial fever.....	2,526	3,773	8.8	19.2	10.4

¹Including general tuberculosis. ²Including pericarditis. ³Including cholera morbus, colitis diarrhoea, dysentery, and enteritis. ⁴Including Bright's disease.

SOCIAL PROGRESS

MORTALITY STATISTICS TABLE.

OCCUPATION	Popu- lation	Death Rate		OCCUPATION	Popu- lation	Death Rate	
		1900	1890			1900	1890
Males. All occupations..	5,575,745	15.0	13.8	Glass blowers and glass workers	10,219	10.8	9.5
Professional	203,104	15.3	15.7	Hat and cap makers...	12,763	17.9	19.5
Architects, artists and teachers of art, etc....	19,587	11.7	12.4	Iron and steel workers..	69,851	10.7	9.8
Clergymen	23,485	23.5	18.2	Leather makers	16,697	12.3	10.3
Engineers and surv'r's	36,539	8.2	5.6	Leather workers.....	12,320	17.5	13.3
Journalists	9,021	15.0	16.8	Machinists	116,918	10.5	11.4
Lawyers.....	28,597	17.2	17.7	Marble & stonecutters..	26,272	14.9	13.8
Musicians and teachers of music	16,008	15.2	16.0	Masons (brick & stone)	55,117	19.9	15.6
Physicians and surgeons	29,622	19.9	21.6	Mill and factory oper- atives (textile)	150,783	8.8	8.1
Teachers (school).....	20,135	12.2	10.4	Millers (flour & grit)..	6,044	26.6	17.3
Others of this class....	20,110	16.0	Painters, glaziers and varnishers.....	108,992	16.2	13.0
Clerical and official.....	424,781	13.5	9.8	Plasterers and white- washers	8,603	17.0	17.3
Bookkeepers, clerks & copyists.....	278,137	13.6	11.2	Plumbers and gas and steamfitters	48,634	9.1	9.7
Bankers, brokers and officials of companies	43,430	11.8	4.7	Tailors.....	83,856	11.8	16.5
Collectors, auctioneers and agents.....	73,958	13.1	10.7	Tinners and tinware makers.....	19,708	14.5	12.2
Others of this class....	29,256	15.1	Others of this class....	446,140	13.9
Mercantile and trading...	493,994	12.1	12.3	Agriculture, transporta- tion and other out- door.....	1,528,241	15.8	12.1
Apothecaries, pharma- cists, etc.....	14,728	18.3	16.2	Boatmen and canalmen	8,178	18.8	20.1
Commercial travelers..	25,989	5.7	5.8	Draymen, hackmen, teamsters, etc.....	185,552	11.0	12.1
Merchants and dealers..	228,899	16.4	14.7	Farmers, planters and farm laborers.....	958,778	17.6	11.9
Hucksters and peddlers	33,482	12.0	14.1	Gardeners, florists, nur- serymen, vinegrowers	34,296	17.2	14.8
Others of this class....	190,896	7.4	Livery stable keepers and hostlers.....	32,529	12.1	12.0
Public entertainment...	87,888	15.4	14.5	Lumbermen, raftsmen..	13,078	16.5	13.1
Hotel and boarding- house keepers.....	19,969	22.3	14.9	Miners and quarrymen.	38,890	9.6	7.8
Saloon and restaurant.	67,919	13.3	14.4	Sailors, pilots, fishermen and oystermen	47,747	27.7	22.0
Personal service, police and military	149,164	12.9	15.4	Steam R. R. employees.	129,472	10.8	9.0
Barbers & hairdressers.	40,007	10.4	12.5	Stockraisers herders and drovers	966	32.1	19.4
Janitors and sextons...	19,493	16.6	17.2	Others of this class....	78,755	9.9
Policemen, watchmen and detectives.....	43,145	15.4	16.2	All other occupations...	90,662	6.5
Soldiers, sailors and marines (U.S.).....	14,851	12.1	22.7	Females. All occupations	1,587,874	8.3	10.5
Others of this class....	31,668	10.9	Musicians and teachers of music.....	16,566	5.0	2.4
Laboring and servant....	800,983	20.2	22.6	Teachers in schools.....	91,964	5.9	4.3
Labor (not agricultur- al).....	719,647	20.7	25.3	Stenographers and type- writers.....	33,780	2.7	1.8
Servants.....	81,336	15.5	12.9	Bookkeepers, clerks and copyists.....	72,713	5.6	3.2
Manufacturing and me- chanical industry....	1,796,928	13.8	13.0	Hotel and boarding house keepers.....	19,755	4.5	3.5
Bakers & confectioners	39,181	12.3	14.6	Laundresses.....	59,300	5.1	6.7
Blacksmiths	56,840	18.3	15.6	Nurses and midwives ..	41,912	9.5	11.2
Boot and shoe makers .	96,662	9.4	15.3	Servants.....	403,801	17.1	18.2
Brewers, distillers and rectifiers.....	5,840	19.7	14.7	Artificial flower and pa- per boxmakers.....	12,624	1.3	3.5
Butchers	38,228	16.1	14.9	Cigarmakers and tobacco workers	12,838	4.1	3.4
Cabinetmakers and up- holsterers.....	24,787	18.0	15.3	Mill and factory opera- tives (textile)	162,392	4.0	5.3
Carpenters and joiners.	180,110	17.2	13.8	Milliners.....	29,122	5.9	4.4
Cigarmakers and tobac- co workers.....	25,581	18.7	16.3	Dressmakers, seamstresses	195,176	5.2
Compositors, printers and pressmen	54,374	12.1	11.1	Telegraph and telephone operators.....	7,801	5.4	4.1
Coopers	11,020	23.8	21.5	All other occupations...	428,130	5.7
Engineers and firemen (not locomotive)....	71,388	15.7	13.6				

MARITAL CONDITION. PRINCIPAL COUNTRIES.
 FOR EVERY 1,000 PERSONS OF 15 YEARS OLD AND UPWARD.
 (From the Statistical Year Book of the German Empire, 1903.)

COUNTRIES	MALES					FEMALES				TOGETHER			
	Year	Single	Married	Widowed	Divorced	Single	Married	Widowed	Divorced	Single	Married	Widowed	Divorced
Austria-Hungary.....	1890	429	525	44	1	380	497	121	1	404	510	83	1
Belgium.....	1890	461	477	60	0	416	470	112	1	439	473	86	0
Denmark.....	1890	385	552	58	3	366	506	123	4	375	523	92	4
France.....	1896	374	551	72	1	313	537	147	2	343	544	110	2
Germany.....	1900	405	547	45	1	352	519	124	3	378	533	86	2
Italy.....	1888	404	536	59	...	326	537	136	...	365	536	98	...
Netherlands.....	1899	427	516	55	1	399	493	104	2	413	504	80	1
Servia.....	1896	248	687	64	...	145	731	122	...	198	708	92	...
Sweden.....	1899	432	506	61	...	411	468	120	...	421	486	92	...
Switzerland.....	1888	446	488	60	4	410	455	127	7	427	471	95	5
United Kingdom.....	1891	405	540	54	...	386	499	114	...	395	518	85	...
Scotland.....	1891	462	484	52	...	442	438	119	...	451	460	88	...
Ireland.....	1901	559	382	53	...	496	370	132	...	527	376	96	...
Queensland.....	1891	577	392	30	...	340	591	68	...	483	471	45	...
New Zealand.....	1891	521	440	37	...	393	535	71	...	463	483	53	...
Cape of Good Hope.....	1891	466	503	30	...	310	570	119	...	388	536	74	...

In the U. S., according to the census of 1870, the proportion of the married to the total population was 37.8; in 1880 it was 37.7; in 1890, 35.7; in 1900, 36.5; but of the last figure the census says "the losses in proportion of the unmarried among the total population are due to a decrease in the proportion of children."

Few States publish the statistics of marriages, but the States which do so all show a lowering proportion.

PROPORTION OF MARRIAGES TO 1,000 OF POPULATION.

COMPILED FROM STATE REPORTS.

	1870	1880	1890	1900
Connecticut.....	9.0	7.6	8.4	7.6
Massachusetts.....	10.1	8.7	9.3	8.6
Ohio.....	9.5	9.0	9.0	8.8
Rhode Island.....	10.8	10.1	9.2	9.2
Vermont.....	8.8	8.1	8.7	8.3
Michigan.....	8.2	9.1	8.9	9.6

The following table from Prof. Mayo-Smith's *Statistics and Sociology* shows the same tendency in Europe.

ANNUAL NUMBER OF PERSONS MARRIED TO 1,000 OF POPULATION.

COUNTRY.	Average. 1871-90	1891	1892	1893
German Empire.....	16.4	16.1	15.9	15.8
England and Wales.....	15.6	15.6	15.4	14.7
Italy.....	15.6	15.0	15.0	14.7
France.....	15.4	15.0	15.2	...
Denmark.....	15.2	13.6	13.6	14.1
Holland.....	15.1	14.2	14.4	14.6
Switzerland.....	14.7	14.4	14.8	14.7
Belgium.....	14.2	14.8	15.4	15.2
Scotland.....	13.9	13.9	14.1	13.2
Norway.....	13.7	13.2	12.7	12.8
Sweden.....	13.1	11.7	11.4	...
Ireland.....	9.0	9.2	9.3	9.4

SOCIAL PROGRESS

MALE POPULATION AND MARITAL CONDITION. UNITED STATES.

(From the Census for 1900.)

RACE, NATIVITY, NATIVITY OF PARENTS, OR MARI- TAL CONDITION.	Total.	PER CENT. DISTRIBUTION BY MARITAL CONDITION.									
		15 years and over.	15 to 19 years	20 to 24 years	25 to 29 years	30 to 34 years	35 to 44 years	45 to 54 years	55 to 64 years	65 years and over.	Age un- known
Total males	38,816,448	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Single	23,492,923	40.2	98.8	77.6	45.8	27.6	16.9	10.3	7.6	5.7	28.6
Married	13,956,314	54.5	1.0	21.6	52.5	69.8	78.8	82.2	79.7	67.1	28.5
Widowed	1,178,008	4.6	(¹)	0.4	1.2	2.0	3.6	6.8	11.9	26.4	3.5
Divorced	84,237	0.3	(¹)	0.1	0.2	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.3
Unknown	104,966	0.4	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.3	39.1
White	34,201,735	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Single	20,565,745	40.2	99.0	79.5	47.3	28.1	17.0	10.3	7.7	5.8	28.7
Married	12,456,349	54.6	0.9	19.8	51.3	69.6	79.1	82.5	80.0	66.9	23.8
Widowed	1,020,406	4.5	(¹)	0.3	1.0	1.8	3.3	6.4	11.6	26.5	3.1
Divorced	72,766	0.3	(¹)	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.3
Unknown	86,469	0.4	0.1	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.3	44.1
Negro	4,386,547	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Single	2,786,580	39.2	97.9	64.3	32.9	21.0	13.2	7.2	5.3	4.6	28.2
Married	1,423,039	54.0	1.7	33.8	63.3	73.7	79.1	81.4	78.6	69.6	47.4
Widowed	151,245	5.8	0.1	1.1	2.8	4.3	6.7	10.5	15.3	25.0	5.5
Divorced	11,028	0.4	(¹)	0.2	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.4	0.4
Unknown	14,655	0.6	0.3	0.6	0.5	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.4	18.5
Native white	28,686,450	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Single	18,762,111	43.5	99.0	79.1	46.6	27.8	16.7	9.9	7.2	5.3	27.4
Married	9,100,725	51.8	0.9	20.3	51.9	69.7	79.1	82.9	80.9	68.6	21.5
Widowed	693,967	4.0	(¹)	0.3	1.1	1.9	3.5	6.4	11.1	25.4	2.6
Divorced	59,419	0.3	(¹)	0.1	0.2	0.4	0.5	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.3
Unknown	70,228	0.4	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2	48.2
Foreign born white	5,515,285	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Single	1,803,634	29.4	99.1	82.3	49.8	29.0	17.8	11.4	8.7	6.7	35.3
Married	3,355,624	63.8	0.7	17.1	49.2	69.3	79.0	81.6	78.1	63.8	35.5
Widowed	326,439	6.2	(¹)	0.2	0.6	1.3	2.7	6.4	12.5	28.8	5.7
Divorced	13,347	0.3	(¹)	(¹)	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.3
Unknown	16,241	0.3	0.2	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	23.2
Native white, both parents native.	20,849,847	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Single	12,956,535	39.7	98.7	75.9	42.1	24.4	14.7	9.0	6.7	5.1	26.4
Married	7,194,236	54.9	0.2	23.3	56.2	72.9	80.9	83.8	81.5	68.9	20.6
Widowed	587,910	4.5	(¹)	0.4	1.2	2.1	3.6	6.5	11.0	25.3	2.5
Divorced	47,997	0.4	(¹)	0.1	0.3	0.4	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.5	0.3
Unknown	63,169	0.5	0.1	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2	50.2
Native white, one or both parents foreign born.	7,836,603	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Single	5,805,576	54.5	98.7	86.7	56.9	35.7	21.8	14.0	10.5	7.6	43.2
Married	1,906,489	42.7	1.2	12.9	42.0	62.2	74.5	79.0	76.7	65.4	36.1
Widowed	106,057	2.4	(¹)	0.2	0.7	1.7	3.2	6.3	11.9	26.1	3.1
Divorced	11,422	0.2	(¹)	(¹)	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.6	0.8	0.7	0.4
Unknown	7,059	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	17.2

(¹) Less than one-tenth of 1 per cent.

202 males and 2,457 females divorced *under the age of 20*; 11,944 males and 33,156 females divorced *under the age of 30*; 5,234,732 males and 3,240,076 females single between the ages of 20 and 35. 52.3 and 33.6 per cent., respectively, of the total males and females between those ages.

FEMALE POPULATION AND MARITAL CONDITION.

RACE, NATIVITY, NATIVITY OF PARENTS, OR MARI- TAL CONDITION.	Total.	PER CENT. DISTRIBUTION BY MARITAL CONDITION.									
		15 years and over.	15 to 19 years	20 to 24 years	25 to 29 years	30 to 34 years	35 to 44 years	45 to 54 years	55 to 64 years	65 years and over.	Age un- known
Total females...	37 178,127	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Single.....	20,491,042	31.2	88.7	51.6	27.5	16.6	11.1	7.8	6.6	6.0	24.6
Married.....	13,813,787	56.9	10.9	46.5	68.9	78.0	79.5	73.9	60.5	34.2	40.1
Widowed.....	2,717,839	11.2	0.2	1.4	2.9	4.6	8.6	17.6	32.3	59.3	15.7
Divorced.....	114,677	0.5	0.1	0.4	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.5	0.3	0.7
Unknown.....	40,782	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	18.9
White.....	32,607,461	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Single.....	17,868,294	31.4	89.6	53.5	28.5	17.1	11.5	8.1	6.9	6.1	26.3
Married.....	12,322,697	57.3	10.1	45.2	68.8	78.5	80.3	74.8	61.2	34.7	37.2
Widowed.....	2,291,949	10.7	0.1	0.9	2.1	3.7	7.5	16.4	31.3	58.7	12.3
Divorced.....	91,754	0.4	0.1	0.3	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.3	0.5
Unknown.....	32,767	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	23.7
Negro.....	4,447,447	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Single.....	2,559,682	29.9	83.2	39.7	20.6	12.9	8.0	5.1	4.1	4.3	21.5
Married.....	1,444,533	53.7	15.7	54.6	69.4	73.1	72.3	65.3	51.9	28.9	45.6
Widowed.....	414,151	15.4	0.9	4.7	8.6	12.4	18.3	28.6	43.2	66.0	23.1
Divorced.....	22,043	0.8	0.1	0.8	1.2	1.4	1.2	0.8	0.5	0.3	1.2
Unknown.....	7,038	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.5	8.6
Native white.....	27,908,929	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Single.....	16,746,736	34.5	89.6	53.6	29.2	18.2	12.4	8.9	7.9	7.1	27.0
Married.....	9,467,043	55.5	10.1	45.1	68.0	77.3	79.3	74.9	61.7	34.1	36.4
Widowed.....	1,589,353	9.3	0.1	0.9	2.2	3.8	7.5	15.4	29.7	58.3	9.5
Divorced.....	79,236	0.5	0.1	0.3	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.3	0.5
Unknown.....	26,561	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	26.6
Foreign born white..	4,698,532	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Single.....	1,121,558	19.6	88.9	53.3	25.4	13.1	8.4	6.0	4.7	4.1	23.2
Married.....	2,855,654	64.2	10.9	45.8	72.5	83.1	83.8	74.6	60.1	35.9	40.8
Widowed.....	702,596	15.8	0.1	0.6	1.7	3.4	7.4	18.9	34.7	59.5	24.6
Divorced.....	12,518	0.3	(1)	0.1	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.2	0.3
Unknown.....	6,206	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.3	11.1
Native white, both parents native..	20,099,515	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Single.....	11,428,302	31.0	87.4	48.7	25.2	15.7	10.9	8.5	7.8	7.0	25.6
Married.....	7,253,852	57.7	12.2	49.8	71.8	79.7	80.8	75.6	62.1	34.2	36.4
Widowed.....	1,332,393	10.6	0.2	1.1	2.3	3.8	7.4	15.1	29.5	58.3	9.5
Divorced.....	62,595	0.5	0.1	0.3	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.7	0.5	0.3	0.5
Unknown.....	22,373	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	28.0
Native white, one or both parents for- eign born.....	7,809,414	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Single.....	5,318,434	44.4	94.9	64.8	37.7	23.6	16.0	10.7	8.5	7.9	42.3
Married.....	2,213,191	49.4	5.0	34.3	60.0	72.1	75.4	71.5	58.8	32.3	36.4
Widowed.....	256,960	5.7	(1)	0.6	1.8	3.7	7.9	17.1	32.0	59.3	9.3
Divorced.....	16,641	0.4	(1)	0.2	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.3	0.3
Unknown.....	4,188	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	11.7

¹ Less than one-tenth of 1 per cent.

AGE OF CONSENT.

In most of the States which have laws on this subject, 21 years is the age for males; in California, Delaware, Idaho, and North Dakota, 18; in Tennessee, 16; and for females 21 years in Florida, Illinois, Iowa, Kentucky, Louisiana, Minnesota, Montana, Nebraska, North Carolina, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, South Carolina, South Dakota, Utah, Virginia, West Virginia, Wisconsin, and Wyoming, and 18 in all the other States having laws, except Delaware, District of Columbia, Idaho, Maryland, New York, and Tennessee, in which it is 16 years, and California and North Dakota, 15.

DIVORCE STATISTICS.

FROM REPORTS OF DR. S. W. DIKE, SECRETARY OF THE NATIONAL LEAGUE FOR THE PROTECTION OF THE FAMILY.

We must still regret that only the nine States mentioned below publish annually statistics of divorces. For the rest of the United States we have no reliable information, since the invaluable Federal Report of 1889, which brought the facts down only to 1886. Pres. Roosevelt, however, has urged an appropriation to enable these statistics to be brought down to date, and we may hope, therefore, for more information by another year.

Meanwhile the States ought to provide their own statistics in many cases. There should be no good reason why such great and wealthy States as New York, Pennsylvania, Illinois, and others should not collect and publish annually their statistics of Births, Marriages, Divorces, and Deaths, as well as Vermont and Rhode Island. No people of a progressive State should be without the data such publications afford.

The following facts are from the 9 States which do publish such statistics:

Maine granted 552 divorces in 1892, and these have rapidly increased until there were 905 in 1902. There was one divorce to every 7.1 marriages in 1901, and probably one to a little over 6 in 1902. Out of the 808 granted in 1901, 64 were for adultery, 226 for desertion; 112 for intoxication; 317 for cruelty or cruel and abusive treatment; and 31 for failure to support.

New Hampshire has lately collected her statistics of divorce from 1858 to the present time. These are interesting as showing the entirely modern feature of the divorce movement, which the early statistics of Connecticut fully corroborate. With the exception of the two smallest counties in the State, whose records were destroyed by fire, there were only 60 divorces in the State in 1858. All the counties give 159 in 1870. In 1880 there were 32; in 1891 they reached 412; and there were 482 in 1901. In this last year there was one divorce to every 8.3 marriages.

Vermont, with an almost stationary population, granted 164 divorces in 1870; 138 in 1880; as few as 91 in 1885; but rapidly increased to 290 in 1895; then fell to 227 in 1901; but rose to 316 in 1902, or one to every 10 marriages. The fluctuations in these figures may be in part due to the carrying over of an unusual number of divorce suits in some years to the next year.

Massachusetts granted 404 divorces in 1870; 595 in 1880; 790 in 1892; and 1,601 in 1902. In 1872 there was one divorce to 47 marriages; in 1882, one to 34; and in 1902, one to 16.

Rhode Island granted 202 divorces in 1870; 274 in 1880; 296 in 1892; and 482 in 1901. There were 493 divorces in 1902, one to 8.4 marriages.

Connecticut averaged 497 divorces annually for the three years 1867-1869. For the next ten years they averaged 429. In the decade ending 1890 the average was 424. The average for the decade ending 1902 was 423. In 1902 there were only 354. When we remember that the population of Connecticut has increased nearly 70 per cent. since 1870, it is apparent that Connecticut is really greatly reducing her divorce rate. The repeal of the notorious "omnibus clause" in 1878, the stricter practice of the courts in recent years, the large Roman Catholic element in the increased population, and the wholesome influence of the churches of the State have all probably combined to produce this result.

Ohio granted 1,008 divorces in 1870, or one to 25 marriages. In 1880 there were 1,578. In 1890 there were 2,306, or one to 14.5 marriages. In 1900 there were 3,878, and in 1902 there were 4,276. In the last year there was a divorce for every 8.8 marriages. The increase was very steady until within the last six years, when it has been phenomenally rapid.

Indiana granted 1,170 in 1870; 1,423 in 1880; 1,721 in 1890; and 2,896 in

1898. Then there were 4,031 in the next year and 4,669 in the year 1900. In this last year there was a divorce to every 5.7 marriages for the entire State. But an improvement is seen in the figures for the last two years reported. In 1901 the number fell to 3,585, and in the following year there were 3,552. In 1902 the ratio to marriages was one to 7.6. The reasons for the improvement are not apparent.

Michigan granted 554 divorces in 1870; 1,149 in 1880; and 2,418 in 1900. The ratio to marriages in the last year noted was about one to 11.

RECENT FOREIGN FIGURES.

Some foreign figures that have been collected since 1889 show the trend of things in Europe. There were 1,018 divorces in Switzerland in 1898, and the rate since the uniform law of 1876 has not changed perceptibly. Nor did that law reduce divorces. A great reduction in divorces has occurred in Germany under the new imperial law. For 1891-95 the annual average was 7,258. In 1896 they were 8,601; in 1899 they had become 9,563. But under the new law, in 1900, they dropped to 8,934, and in 1901 to 8,037. Divorces in Sweden had increased to 316 in 1892 from an average of about 200 twenty years earlier. Belgium had 128 separations in 1870; 295 in 1880, or one to 162 marriages; 373 in 1890, or one to 130 marriages; and 821 in 1901, or one to 41 marriages. It should be said that separation is the only form of divorce known in Belgium. France, under the divorce law of 1884, granted 6,245 in 1885, and reached its highest number in 1897, when 7,460 were granted. Since they they appear to decrease, only 7,157 being granted in the year 1900. A still greater decrease is probable for 1902. In 1897 there were 406 divorces by conversion. That is, in France it is allowable to obtain a separation for five years and at the end of that time to apply for the conversion of the separation into an absolute divorce if the parties have not in the meanwhile become reconciled. In the Netherlands there were 156 divorces in all in 1870; 226 in 1880; and 476 in 1890. Here divorce by conversion of separation is allowed. In England and Wales there were 176 divorces in 1870; 336 in 1880; 364 in 1890; and 727 in 1899.

THE LEADING PROTESTANT CHURCHES ON DIVORCE.

There has been more interest in the churches on the subject of divorce than in any former year. The Methodist Episcopal Church at its last General Conference, recognizing a united effort on the part of Protestant churches of the United States, through an Inter-Church Conference, "to rouse the religious and moral sentiment of the land in defence of the purity and stability of the marriage relation," provided for representation on this Conference proposed by the Protestant Episcopal Church, and called the special attention of all its ministers to the law of the Methodist Church relating to the marrying of divorced persons, and earnestly insisted upon the necessity of strict obedience to it. This law allows no divorce except for adultery, and forbids ministers to solemnize marriage in any case where there is a divorced wife or husband living. It makes an exception in case of the innocent party in a divorce for adultery and in the reunion of divorced parties.

The General Assembly of the Presbyterian Church, North, adopted a somewhat elaborate report. According to it, some ten National Churches are represented on the Inter-Church Conference, which it regards as "not alone a significant, providential opportunity to immediate duty regarding the grave questions at first suggested for consideration, but also a providential opportunity to bind together the forces of righteousness, represented by the Christian churches of our country, for the suppression of other evils and for the advancement of other reforms."

The General Assembly then enjoined all the ministers of the Church to refuse to perform the marriage ceremony in the cases of divorced persons except those divorced for causes allowed by the standards of the Church. It

issued an appeal and address on the subject, and requested that it be read by pastors from their pulpits.

The great debate for several days in the House of Deputies of the General Convention of the Protestant Episcopal Church was so widely reported that little need be said of it. The proposed canon doing away with all divorce was defeated, though a majority vote for it was secured in the Committee of the Whole. The old canon which allows divorce for adultery only, and marriage to the innocent party was, however, in the judgment of most, strengthened by certain provisions. A year must elapse before the innocent party in the case of the divorce for adultery can be remarried. It is further provided that it shall be within the discretion of any minister to decline to celebrate the marriage of all divorced persons.

The National Council of Congregational Churches, in addition to charging its committee with the duty of cooperating with the committees of other churches, made it the special duty of the committee to study the material, industrial, educational, and legal conditions upon which the fulfilment of the functions of the family depends, and to recommend such attitude and action of the churches thereto as their own interests and those of the family alike require in view of the facts."

Other national bodies of Christians have taken similar action during the year, amongst others the Southern Unitarians, the Massachusetts Baptists, the Maryland Lutherans, the Illinois Methodists.

MARRIAGE AND DIVORCE LAWS.

(Revised to Jan. 1, 1905.)

Marriages between whites and persons of negro descent are prohibited and punishable in Alabama, Arizona, Arkansas, California, Colorado, Delaware, Florida, Georgia, Idaho, Indiana, Indian Territory, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, Mississippi, Missouri, Nebraska, North Carolina, Oklahoma, Oregon, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, Utah, Virginia and West Virginia.

Marriages between whites and Indians are void in Arizona, North Carolina, Oregon, and South Carolina.

Marriages between whites and Chinese are void in Arizona, California, Mississippi, Oregon, and Utah.

Marriage between first cousins is forbidden in Arizona, Arkansas, Illinois, Indiana, Indian Territory, Kansas, Louisiana, Missouri, Nevada, New Hampshire, North Dakota, Ohio, Oklahoma, Oregon, Pennsylvania, South Dakota, Washington and Wyoming, and in some of them is declared incestuous and void, and marriage with step-relatives is forbidden in all the States except Florida, Hawaiian Islands, Iowa, Kentucky, Minnesota, New York, Tennessee, Wisconsin.

Connecticut and Minnesota prohibit the marriage of an epileptic, imbecile, or feeble-minded woman under 45 years of age, or cohabitation by any male of this description with a woman under 45 years of age, and marriage of lunatics is void in the District of Columbia, Kentucky, Maine, Massachusetts, Nebraska, New Jersey, and Ohio; persons having sexual diseases in Michigan.

Ohio forbids marriage between drunkards and those applying for licenses under the influence of intoxicating liquors.

Marriages are voidable in nearly all the States when contracted under the age of consent to cohabit, through fraud, or if one of the parties is suffering from insanity.

DIVORCE, ABSOLUTE, CAUSES FOR.

The violation of the marriage vow is cause for absolute divorce in all the States and Territories, except South Carolina, which has no divorce laws.

The living of husband or wife at the time of the second marriage is a cause in most States, and physical incapacity in all the States except California, Connecticut, Idaho, Iowa, Louisiana, New York, North Dakota, South Carolina, South Dakota and Vermont. In most of these States it renders marriage voidable.

Wilful desertion, *one year* in Arkansas, California, Colorado, Florida, Idaho, Indian Territory, Kansas, Kentucky, Minnesota, Missouri, Montana, Nevada, North Dakota, Oklahoma, Oregon, South Dakota, Utah, Washington, Wisconsin, and Wyoming; *two years* in Alabama, Alaska, Arizona, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Michigan, Mississippi, Nebraska, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and Tennessee; *three years* in Connecticut, Delaware, Georgia, Hawaiian Islands, Maine, Maryland, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Ohio, Texas, Vermont, Virginia and West Virginia; *five years* in Rhode Island though the court may decree a divorce for a shorter period. Both parties living apart without cohabitation, five years, in Kentucky; ten years, Rhode Island; no time specified in Louisiana and New Mexico.

Habitual drunkenness, in all the States and Territories, except Arizona, Maryland, New Jersey, New York, North Carolina, Pennsylvania, South Carolina, Texas, Vermont, Virginia, and West Virginia. "Intoxication from the use of intoxicating liquors, opium, or other drugs," in Maine, Massachusetts, Mississippi and North Dakota.

"Imprisonment for felony," or "conviction for felony," in all the States and Territories (with limitations), except Florida, Maine, Maryland, New Jersey, New York, North and South Carolina.

"Cruel and abusive treatment," "intolerable cruelty," "extreme cruelty," "repeated cruelty," or "inhuman treatment," in all the States, except District of Columbia, Maryland, Michigan, New Jersey, New York, North and South Carolina, Tennessee, Virginia, and West Virginia, and discretionary in Georgia; treatment seriously injuring health or endangering reason, in New Hampshire.

Failure by the husband to provide, one year in California, Colorado, Idaho, Montana, Nevada, North Dakota, and Wyoming; two years in Arizona, Indiana, and Nebraska; three years in New Hampshire; no time specified in Maine, Massachusetts, Nebraska, New Mexico, Rhode Island, South Dakota, Utah, Vermont and Washington.

Fraud and fraudulent contract, in Connecticut, Delaware, Georgia, Mansas Kentucky, Ohio, Oklahoma, Pennsylvania, and Washington.

Absence without being heard from, three years in New Hampshire and Ohio; seven years in Connecticut and Vermont; voluntary separation, five years in Wisconsin; ten years in Rhode Island.

"Ungovernable temper," in Kentucky; "habitual indulgence in violent and ungovernable temper," in Florida; "cruel treatment, outrages, or excesses as to render their living together insupportable," in Arkansas, Kentucky, Louisiana, Missouri, and Texas; "indignities as render life burdensome," in Missouri, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Washington, and Wyoming; attempt to murder the other party, in Illinois, Louisiana, and Tennessee; "pregnancy at the time of marriage without husband's knowledge or agency," in Alabama, Arizona, Georgia, Kansas, Kentucky, Mississippi, Missouri, New Mexico, North Carolina, Oklahoma, Tennessee, Virginia, and West Virginia.

Insanity or idiocy at time of marriage, in Georgia, Mississippi, and Virginia; insanity lasting ten years, in Washington; in Florida, four years; insanity and six years' confinement in an asylum, on six years' residence, in Idaho; permanent insanity in Arkansas and Indian Territory.

Other causes in different States are as follows: "Commission of the crime against nature," in Alabama; "husband notoriously immoral before marriage, unknown to wife," in West Virginia; "fugitive from justice," in Louisiana, North Carolina, and Virginia; "gross misbehavior or wickedness," in Rhode Island; "any gross neglect of duty," in Kansas, Ohio, and Oklahoma; "refusal of wife to remove into the State," in Tennessee; "joining any religious sect that believes marriage unlawful, and refusing to cohabit," in Kentucky, Massachusetts, and New Hampshire; "vagrancy of the husband," in Missouri; "refusal of wife to cohabit for twelve months," in North Carolina; "excesses," in Texas; "where wife by cruel and barbarous treatment renders condition of husband intolerable," in Pennsylvania; "concealment of sexual disease," in Kentucky; obtaining divorce in another State, in Michigan and Ohio; "conviction of a felony prior to marriage," in Arizona, Missouri, Virginia, and West Virginia; "incurable Chinese leprosy," in Hawaiian Islands; "offering indignities, rendering conditions intolerable," in the Indian Territory; voluntary separation for five years, in Wisconsin. Public detamation of other party, in Louisiana. In Georgia an absolute divorce is granted only after the concurrent verdict of two juries, at different terms of the court. In New York absolute divorce is granted for but one cause, adultery. Collusion and connivance bar a divorce, also any condonation of a violation of the marriage vow.

ANOTHER VIEW OF DIVORCE.

BY GEORGE E. HOWARD IN "HISTORY OF MATRIMONIAL INSTITUTIONS," Vol III, pp. 220, 252 and 259.

Certain it is that one rises from a detailed study of American divorce legislation with the conviction that, faulty as are our divorce laws, our marriage laws are far worse. . . . Indeed, there has been a great deal of misdirected and hasty criticism of American divorce legislation. Even thoughtful scholars sometimes indulge in the traditional argument. . . . Divorce is not immoral. It is quite probable, on the contrary, that drastic-like negligent legislation is sometimes immoral. It is not necessarily a merit, and it may be a grave social wrong to reduce the legal causes for a decree to the one "scriptural" ground. . . . The divorce movement is a portentous and almost universal incident of modern civilization. Doubtless it signifies underlying social evils, vast and portentous. Yet to the student of history it is perfectly clear that this is but a part of the mighty movement for social liberation which has been gaining in volume and strength ever since the Reformation.

There "seems no ground for concluding that the increase of divorce in America necessarily points to a decline in the standard of domestic morality, except perhaps in a small section of the wealthy class, though it must be admitted that if this increase should continue, it may tend to induce such a decline."¹ Even more emphatic is Commissioner Wright: "I do not believe that divorce is a menace to the purity and sacredness of the family, but I do believe it is a menace to the infernal brutality, of whatever name, and be it crude or refined, which at times makes a hell of the holiest human relations. . . . I believe the result will be an enhanced purity, a sublime sacredness, a more beautiful embodiment of Lamartine's trinity—the trinity of the father, the mother and the child—"to preserve which in all sacredness, society must take the bitter medicine labelled divorce."²

There is then no need to despair of the future. It is vain to turn back the hand on the dial. The problem of individual liberty, has become the problem of social liberty. Individualization for the sake of socialization must continue its beneficent work. There must be growth, constant readjustment. Marriage will in truth be holy, if it rests on the free troth plight of equals whose love is deep enough to embrace a rational regard for the rights of posterity. The home will not have less sanctity when through it flows the stream of the larger human life. The family will indeed survive, but it will be a family of a higher type. Its evolution is not yet complete. Coercive ties will still further yield to voluntary spiritual ties; for individual liberty appears to be the essential condition of social progress."

¹Bryce Studies in Hist. and Jur., 850.

²Wright in Arena., v. 141, 143.

SOCIAL PROGRESS

DWELLINGS OF FAMILIES.

(From Census Reports. See also Cities.)

DEFINITIONS OF CENSUS TERMS. A dwelling, for census purposes, is "a place in which, at the time of the census, one or more persons regularly sleep." It may be a hotel, tenement, stable, loft, tent, or canal-boat.

Families according to the census, divided into "families" or "private families." A "family," according to the census, is any "group of individuals who occupy jointly a dwelling-place or part of a dwelling-place or for any individual living alone in any place of abode." A "family" may include all the occupants and employees of a hotel, cabin, tent, factory or stable, if they habitually sleep there. A "private family" is a family in the ordinary sense. In 1900 there were 16,006,797 "private families" and 223,797 other families, so small a number relatively as not materially to affect percentages.

AVERAGE NUMBER TO A FAMILY.

1850, 5.6; 1860, 5.3; 1870, 5.1; 1880, 5.0; 1890, 4.9; 1900, 4.7, indicating a steady diminution.

AVERAGE NUMBER OF PERSONS TO A "DWELLING."

1880, 5.6; 1890, 5.5; 1900, 5.3.

OWNERSHIP OF HOMES.

STATE OR TERRITORY	PER CENT. OF FAMILIES HAVING HOMES				PER CENT. OF FARM FAMILIES HAVING HOMES				AVERAGE NUMBER OF PERSONS TO A—		
	Owned			Hired	Owned			Hired	Dwell- ing	Fam- ily	Pri- vate family
	Total	Free	Mort- gaged		Total	Free	Mort- gaged				
United States....	46.5	31.8	14.7	53.5	64.4	44.4	20.0	35.6	5.3	4.7	4.6
N. Atlantic div.	38.0	22.3	15.7	62.0	78.2	48.2	30.0	21.8	5.9	4.6	4.4
S. Atlantic div.	40.7	33.2	7.5	59.3	55.2	45.9	9.3	44.8	5.2	5.0	4.9
N. Central div.	55.7	35.3	20.4	44.3	72.3	42.2	30.1	27.7	5.0	4.6	4.5
S. Central div..	43.4	36.1	7.3	56.6	51.2	42.3	8.9	48.8	5.1	5.0	4.9
Western div...	53.4	42.7	10.7	46.6	81.0	63.4	17.6	19.0	4.7	4.4	4.1

SLUMS.

According to the Eleventh Census, Chicago had 15.51 persons to a dwelling in the slums and New York 36.79. Yet rates for these miserable quarters in New York slums average \$21.39 per month for five rooms; \$15.38 for four; \$11.12 for three; \$7.86 for two, and \$5.04 for one room. According to Prof. Henderson ("Modern Methods of Charity," p. 383,) it is not uncommon for slum tenements in the larger cities to rent annually for 20 to 25 per cent. of their total value, and frequently to absorb one-third of the tenant's income. The overcrowding, says the New York Tenement Commission, "results in keeping children up and out of doors until midnight in warm weather because the rooms are almost unendurable; making cleanliness of house and street difficult; filling the air with unwholesome emanations and foul odors of every kind; producing a condition of nervous tension; interfering with separateness and sacredness of home life; leading to promiscuous mixing of all ages and sexes in a single room; thus breaking down the barriers of modesty, and conducive to the corruption of the young, and occasionally to revolting crimes." The result, says Prof. Henderson, "is a frightful death rate and an inhuman life."

SOCIAL PROGRESS

OWNERSHIP OF HOMES. 1890 AND 1900

KIND OF FAMILY	Number of families	PER CENT. OF FAMILIES HAVING HOMES—			
		Owned			Hired
		Total	Free	Mortgaged	
1900					
All families.....	16,187,715	46.5	31.8	14.7	53.5
Farm families.....	5,698,901	64.4	44.4	20.0	35.6
Other families.....	10,488,814	36.3	23.4	12.9	63.7
1890					
All families.....	12,690,152	47.8	34.4	13.4	52.2
Farm families.....	4,767,179	65.9	47.3	18.6	34.1
Other families.....	7,922,973	36.9	26.7	10.2	63.1

RACE OR AGE OF HEAD	PER CENT. OF TOTAL PRIVATE FAMILIES HAVING HOMES—				PER CENT. OF PRIVATE FARM FAMILIES HAVING HOMES—				PER CENT. OF OTHER PRIVATE FAMILIES HAVING HOMES—			
	Owned			Hired	Owned			Hired	Owned			Hired
	Total	Free	Mortgaged		Total	Free	Mortgaged		Total	Free	Mortgaged	
Total.....	46.7	32.0	14.7	53.3	64.4	44.4	20.0	35.6	36.5	24.8	11.7	63.5
White.....	49.7	33.8	15.9	50.3	70.3	48.2	22.1	29.7	38.3	25.8	12.5	61.7
Negro.....	21.8	16.2	5.6	78.2	25.3	18.3	7.0	74.7	19.0	14.5	4.5	81.0
Indian.....	91.4	88.2	3.2	8.6	95.6	90.2	5.4	4.4	86.6	86.0	0.6	13.4
Mongolian.....	8.6	8.0	0.6	91.4	8.8	6.3	2.5	91.2	8.5	8.0	0.5	91.5
White—												
Native.....	51.1	35.7	15.4	48.9	68.2	48.1	20.1	31.8	39.1	27.0	12.1	60.9
Foreign-born.....	46.1	28.7	17.4	53.9	81.2	48.4	32.8	18.8	36.7	23.5	13.2	63.3
Total.....	46.7	32.0	14.7	53.3	64.4	44.4	20.0	35.6	36.5	24.8	11.7	63.5

In 1900, only 46.7 per cent. of "private families," or less than one-half of the families of our country owned their own homes; only 32 per cent., less than one third, owned unmortgaged homes. From 1890 to 1900, the number of families owning their own homes fell from 47.8 to 46.5 per cent; mortgaged homes increased from 13.4 to 14.7 per cent. Of farm families, in 1900, 64.4 per cent. owned a home and only 44 per cent. an unmortgaged home. For cities, see Cities. From 1890 to 1900 the number of farm tenants increased from 34.1 per cent. to 35.6 per cent.

STATE OR TERRITORY	PER CENT. OF FARMS OPERATED BY—								
	Owners			Cash tenants			Share tenants		
	1900	1890	1880	1900	1890	1880	1900	1890	1880
United States.....	64.7	71.6	74.5	13.1	10.0	8.0	22.2	18.4	17.5
Continental United States...	64.7	71.6	74.5	13.1	10.0	8.0	22.2	18.4	17.5
N. Atlantic Division.....	79.2	81.6	84.0	9.8	7.9	7.0	11.0	10.5	9.0
S. Atlantic Division.....	55.8	61.5	63.9	17.9	12.8	11.6	26.3	25.7	24.5
N. Central Division.....	72.1	76.6	79.5	9.5	7.7	5.2	18.4	15.7	15.3
S. Central Division.....	51.4	61.5	63.8	17.3	14.0	11.8	31.3	24.5	24.4
Western Division.....	83.4	87.9	86.0	7.7	5.0	5.5	8.9	7.1	8.5

SOCIAL PROGRESS

OCCUPATIONS IN THE U. S.

POPULATION AT LEAST 10 YEARS OF AGE ENGAGED IN GAINFUL OCCUPATIONS.

(From the Twelfth Census.)

	Number.	Per Cent. of Population 10 Years of Age.		
		1900.	1890.	1880.
United States.....	\$29,285,922	50.3	48.0	47.3
North Atlantic Division.....	8,579,275	51.4	50.2	47.1
South Atlantic Division.....	4,000,691	52.5	48.6	50.7
North Central Division.....	9,580,913	47.2	45.4	44.1
South Central Division.....	5,209,755	51.5	46.6	49.7
Western Division.....	1,703,483	52.7	55.7	55.4

The figures indicate a slight increase in the proportion of the population engaged in gainful occupations, except in the Western Division. This increase is due undoubtedly to the entry of women into gainful occupations, and the fall in the West is doubtless due to the changing character from a population largely male, to one with more married women and children over 10. The States in 1900 having the largest proportion engaged in gainful occupations were Wyoming, South Carolina, Montana, Alabama, Mississippi, Arizona, Nevada and Rhode Island. Those having the smallest were Utah, Kansas, Indiana, Iowa, West Virginia, South Dakota and Nebraska.

PERCENTAGE BY SEX AND PURSUITS.

	Total.	Both Sexes.			Male.			Female.		
		1900	1890	1880	1900	1890	1880	1900	1890	1880
All Occupations.....	29,074,117	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Agricultural pursuits.....	10,381,765	35.7	37.7	44.3	39.5	41.9	48.3	18.4	17.3	22.5
Professional service.....	1,258,739	4.3	4.1	3.5	3.5	3.4	2.9	8.1	8.0	6.7
Domestic and personal service.....	5,580,657	19.4	18.6	19.7	15.0	13.6	15.2	39.4	42.6	44.6
Trade and transportation.....	4,766,964	16.3	14.6	10.7	17.8	16.4	12.2	9.4	5.8	2.4
Manufact. and mech. pursuits.....	7,085,992	24.3	25.0	21.8	24.2	24.7	21.4	24.7	26.3	23.8

The figures indicate for the country generally a lessening number engaged in agriculture, a slight lessening in domestic and personal service, somewhat of a gain in manufacturing and mechanical pursuits, a large gain in trade and transportation. With males the facts are essentially the same, with some increase in professional service.

WOMEN'S OCCUPATIONS.

Among women engaged in gainful operations the proportion engaged in agricultural pursuits and in domestic and personal service is falling off; a somewhat larger number are engaged in manufacturing and mechanical pursuits and in professional service; the main gain is in trade and transportation, as clerks, saleswomen, cashgirls, typewriters, etc. By far the largest number of women however, are still engaged in domestic and personal service, and the next largest number in manufacturing and mechanical pursuits. Only 8.1 per cent. are engaged in professional service.

OCCUPATIONS BY AGES.

(From the Twelfth Census.)

	10-15	16-24	25-34	35-44
Agricultural pursuits	1,062,251	2,544,120	2,080,773	1,721,002
Professional service	2,956	308,916	405,673	251,650
Domestic and personal	280,143	1,767,389	1,436,068	996,742
Trade and transportation	122,507	1,265,795	1,389,612	990,356
Manufacturing and mechanical	284,330	1,869,776	1,927,966	1,453,227
All occupations	1,752,187	7,755,996	7,240,092	5,412,977

	45-54	55-64	Over 64	Unknown
Agricultural pursuits	1,437,439	936,620	631,440	26,574
Professional service	153,655	88,947	48,398	4,341
Domestic and personal	645,089	357,273	177,767	33,307
Trade and transportation	573,962	289,387	130,226	16,448
Manufacturing and mechanical	893,177	447,446	216,235	20,147
All occupations	3,703,262	2,117,673	1,204,066	100,817

PROPORTION OF MALES AND FEMALES ENGAGED IN GAINFUL OCCUPATIONS.

CLASSES OF OCCUPATIONS.	MALES.			FEMALES.		
	1880	1890	1900	1880	1890	1900
Agricultural pursuits	92.3	92.1	90.6	7.7	7.9	9.4
Professional service	70.6	67.0	65.8	29.4	33.0	34.2
Domestic and personal	65.5	60.5	62.5	34.5	39.5	37.5
Trade and transportation	96.6	93.1	89.4	3.4	6.9	10.6
Manufacturing and mechanical	83.3	81.9	81.5	16.7	18.1	18.5
All occupations	84.8	82.8	81.7	15.2	17.2	18.3

Men are thus seen to be in an overwhelming majority in all classes of occupations, though women are slowly gaining on them in each class. The following table gives the details for each of the occupations represented in the census:

OCCUPATION.	Male.	Female.	Per Cent. Male.		Gain in percentage of men or women.
			1900.	1890.	
All occupations	23,754,205	5,319,912	81.7	82.8	Women gain.
Agricultural pursuits	9,404,429	977,336	90.6	92.1	" "
Agricultural laborers	3,747,668	663,209	85.0	85.1	" "
Dairymen and dairywomen	9,983	892	91.8	90.3	Men gain.
Farmers, planters and overseers	5,367,169	307,706	94.6	95.7	Women gain.
Gardeners, florists, nurserymen, etc.	58,928	2,860	95.4	96.7	" "
Lumbermen and raftsmen	71,920	100	99.9	100.0	" "
Stockraisers, herders, and drovers	83,056	1,932	97.7	99.0	" "
Turpentine farmers and laborers	24,456	281	98.9		
Woodchoppers	35,962	113	99.7	99.9	Women gain
Other agricultural pursuits	5,287		95.6		
Professional service	828,163	430,576	65.8	67.0	Women gain
Actors, professional showmen, etc.	27,903	6,857	80.3	83.5	Women gain.
Architects, designers, draftsmen, etc.	28,483	1,041	96.5	98.1	" "
Artists and teachers of art	13,852	11,021	55.7	51.9	Men gain.

OCCUPATION.	Male.	Female.	Per Cent. male.		Gain in percentage of men or women.
			1900.	1890.	
Clergymen	108,265	3,373	97.0	98.7	Women gain.
Dentists	28,858	786	97.3	98.1	" "
Electricians	50,308	409	99.2	99.7	" "
Engineers (civil, etc.) and surveyors	43,155	84	99.8
Journalists	27,845	2,193	92.7	95.9	Women gain
Lawyers	113,450	1,010	99.1	99.8	" "
Literary and scientific persons	13,082	5,984	68.6	75.4	" "
Musicians and teachers of music	39,815	52,359	43.2	44.5	" "
Officials (government)	78,488	8,119	90.6	94.1	" "
Physicians and surgeons	124,615	7,387	94.4	95.7	" "
Teachers and professors in colleges, etc	118,519	327,614	26.6	29.2	" "
Other professional service	11,525	2,339	83.1	94.0	" "
Domestic and personal service	3,485,208	2,095,449	62.5	60.5	Men gain.
Barbers and hairdressers	125,542	5,574	95.7	96.7	Women gain.
Bartenders	88,377	440	99.5	99.7	" "
Boarding and lodging-house keepers	11,826	59,455	16.6	26.5	" "
Hotel keepers	46,264	8,533	84.4	88.0	" "
Housekeepers and stewards	8,224	146,929	5.3	6.5	" "
Janitors and sextons	48,544	8,033	85.8	89.4	" "
Laborers (not specified)	2,505,287	123,975	95.3	97.1	" "
Launderers and laundresses	50,683	335,282	13.1	12.8	Men gain.
Nurses and midwives	12,265	108,691	10.1	13.0	Women gain
Restaurant keepers	28,999	4,845	85.7	87.5	" "
Saloon keepers	81,660	2,086	97.5	96.8	Men gain.
Servants and waiters	276,958	1,283,763	17.7	16.4	" "
Soldiers, sailors, and marines (United States)	43,235	100.0	100.0
Watchmen, policemen, firemen, etc.	129,711	879	99.3
Other domestic and personal service	27,633	6,964	79.9	77.8	Men gain.
Trade and transportation	4,263,617	503,347	89.4	93.1	Women gain.
Agents	230,606	10,556	95.6	97.2	Women gain.
Bankers and brokers	72,984	293	99.6	98.6	Men gain.
Boatmen and sailors	78,253	153	99.8	99.9	Women gain.
Bookkeepers and accountants	180,727	74,153	70.9	82.6	" "
Clerks and copyists	544,881	85,246	86.5	88.5	" "
Commercial travelers	91,973	946	99.0	99.0
Draymen, hackmen, teamsters, etc.	538,029	904	99.8	99.9	Women gain.
Foremen and overseers	54,032	1,418	97.4	97.3	Men gain.
Hostlers	64,850	79	99.9	100.0	Women gain.
Hucksters and peddlers	73,734	2,915	96.2	96.2
Livery stable keepers	33,466	190	99.4	99.8	Women gain.
Merchants and dealers (except wholesale)	756,802	34,084	95.7	96.2	" "
Merchants and dealers (wholesale)	42,032	261	99.4	99.4	" "
Messengers and errand and office boys	64,959	6,663	90.7	94.3	Women gain.
Officials of banks and companies	72,801	1,271	98.3	99.5	" "
Packers and shippers	39,557	19,988	66.4	73.9	" "
Porters and helpers (in stores, etc.)	53,625	566	99.0	98.5	Men gain.
Salesmen and saleswomen	461,909	149,230	75.6	77.9	Women gain.
Steam railroad employees	580,462	1,688	99.7	99.7
Stenographers and typewriters	26,246	86,118	23.4	36.4	Women gain.
Street railway employees	68,873	46	99.9	100.0	" "
Telegraph and telephone linemen	14,757	100.0	94.0	Men gain.
Telegraph and telephone operators	52,459	22,556	69.9	83.8	Women gain.
Undertakers	15,866	323	98.0	99.2	" "
Other persons in trade and transportation	49,734	3,700	93.1
Manfg. and mechanical pursuits	5,772,788	1,313,204	81.5	81.9	Women gain.
<i>Building Trades.</i>					
Carpenters and joiners	599,707	545	99.9
Masons (brick and stone)	160,638	167	99.9
Painters, glaziers, and varnishers	275,782	1,759	99.4	99.4
Paper hangers	21,749	545	98.9	99.6	Men gain.
Plasterers	35,649	241	99.9	100.0	" "
Plumbers and gas and steamfitters	97,659	126	99.9	99.9
Roofers and slaters	9,065	2	100.0	100.0
Mechanics (not otherwise specified)	9,351	41	99.6	99.9	Women gain.

OCCUPATION.	Male.	Female.	Per Cent. Male.		Gain in percentage of men or women.
			1900.	1890.	
<i>Chemicals and Allied Products.</i>					
Oil well and oil works employees	24,573	53	99.8	99.7	Men gain.
Other chemical workers	12,035	2,779	81.2	79.1	" "
<i>Clay, Glass, and Stone Products.</i>					
Brick and tilemakers, etc.	49,455	478	99.0	99.8	Women gain
Glassworkers	47,377	2,621	94.8	95.0	" "
Marble and stonecutters	54,317	143	99.7	99.9	" "
Potters	13,200	2,940	81.8	86.7	" "
<i>Fishing and Mining.</i>					
Fishermen and oystermen	67,715	462	99.3	99.6	" "
Miners and quarrymen	562,501	1,365	99.8	99.9	" "
<i>Food and Kindred Products.</i>					
Bakers	74,860	4,328	94.5	96.2	" "
Butchers	113,578	378	99.7	99.9	" "
Butter and cheesemakers	18,593	648	96.6	96.4	Men gain.
Confectioners	21,980	9,214	70.5	75.6	Women gain.
Millers	40,362	186	99.5	99.8	" "
Other food preparers	23,640	5,142	82.1
<i>Iron and Steel and Their Products.</i>					
Blacksmiths	226,284	193	99.9	100.0	Women gain.
Iron and Steelworkers	287,241	3,370	98.8	98.7	Men gain.
Machinists	282,574	571	99.8	99.9	Women gain.
Steam boiler makers	33,038	8	100.0	100.0	" "
Stove, furnace, and grate makers	12,430	43	99.7	99.8	Women gain.
Tool and cutlery makers	27,376	746	97.3	97.0	Men gain.
Wheelwrights	13,495	10	99.9	100.0	Women gain.
Wireworkers	16,701	1,786	90.3	91.2	" "
<i>Leather and Its Finished Products.</i>					
Boot and shoemakers and repairers	169,393	39,519	81.1	84.3	" "
Harness and saddle makers and repairers	39,506	595	98.5	98.1	Men gain.
Leather curriers and tanners	40,917	1,754	95.9	99.3	Women gain.
Trunk and leather-case makers, etc.	5,472	1,579	77.6	86.9	" "
<i>Liquors and Beverages.</i>					
Bottlers and soda water makers, etc.	9,725	794	92.5	92.4	Men gain.
Brewers and maltsters	20,687	275	98.7	99.7	Women gain.
Distillers and rectifiers	3,114	30	99.0	99.7	" "
<i>Lumber and Its Remanufactures.</i>					
Cabinet makers	35,552	67	99.8	99.9	" "
Coopers	37,087	113	99.7	99.9	" "
Saw and planing mill employees	161,251	373	99.8	98.8	Men gain.
Other woodworkers	104,468	6,805	93.8	93.8
<i>Metals and Metal Products Other Than Iron and Steel.</i>					
Brassworkers	25,870	890	96.7
Clock and watchmakers and repairers	19,305	4,815	80.0	81.4	Women gain.
Gold and silver workers	19,732	6,380	75.6	83.5	" "
Tinplate and tinware makers	68,730	1,775	97.5
Other metal workers	54,282	2,320	95.9
<i>Paper and Printing.</i>					
Bookbinders	14,646	15,632	48.4	51.5	Women gain
Boxmakers (paper)	3,796	17,302	18.0	26.5	" "
Engravers	10,698	453	95.9	96.4	" "
Paper and pulp mill operatives	26,904	9,424	74.1	67.8	Men gain.
Printers, lithographers, and pressmen	139,166	15,981	89.7	90.1	Women gain.
<i>Textile.</i>					
Bleachery and dye works operatives	20,493	1,785	92.0	88.0	Men gain.

OCCUPATION.	Male.	Female.	Per Cent. Male.		Gain in percentage of men or women.
			1900.	1890.	
Carpet factory operatives	10,371	9,017	53.5	51.8	Men gain.
Cotton mill operatives	125,788	120,216	51.1	46.3	" "
Hosiery and knitting mill operatives	12,630	34,490	26.8	29.6	Women gain.
Silk mill operatives	22,023	32,437	40.4	40.7	" "
Woolen mill operatives	42,566	30,630	58.2	56.6	Men gain.
Other textile mill operatives	53,437	51,182	51.1
Dressmakers	2,090	344,794	0.6	0.3	Men gain.
Hat and capmakers	15,110	7,622	66.5	72.1	Women gain.
Milliners	1,739	86,120	2.0	0.6	Men gain.
Seamstresses	4,837	146,105	3.2	2.7	" "
Shirt, collar and cuffmakers	8,491	30,941	21.5	24.3	Women gain.
Tailors and tailoresses	160,714	68,935	70.0	65.7	Men gain.
Other textile workers	8,925	21,042	29.8
<i>Miscellaneous Industries.</i>					
Broom and brushmakers	8,643	1,577	84.6	88.5	Women gain.
Charcoal, coke, and limeburners	14,405	43	99.7	99.8	" "
Engineers and firemen (not locomotive)	223,318	177	99.9	100.0	" "
Glovmakers	4,503	7,768	36.7	42.7	" "
Manufacturers and officials, etc.	239,649	3,433	98.6
Model and pattern makers	14,869	204	98.6	98.6
Photographers	23,361	3,580	86.7	89.0	Women gain
Rubber factory operatives	14,492	7,374	66.3	60.1	Men gain.
Tobacco and cigar factory operatives	87,955	43,497	66.9	74.9	Women gain.
Upholsterers	28,663	2,158	93.0	93.2	" "
Other miscellaneous industries	380,490	90,810	80.7

According to the above figures, the proportion of males has increased from 1890 to 1900 in 29 occupations; the proportion of females has increased in 86 occupations, and in 25 there has been no change, or it is unknown through change in classification. Most of these changes of proportions, however, have been very minute. The only occupations in which men have increased over women more than one per cent. are as dairymen, artists, in domestic and personal service, as servants and waiters, as telegraph and telephone linemen, in paper mills, as milliners, tailors, and in a few factories. Here they have gained slightly.

The occupations in which women have gained more than one per cent. are: as farmers (1.1), gardeners (1.3), as stockraisers (1.3), as actors (3.2), architects (1.6), clergymen (1.7), journalists (3.2), in literary pursuits (6.8), music (1.3), in government offices (3.5), teachers (2.6), physicians (1.3), other prof. services (10.9), as boarding-house keepers (9.9), hotel keepers (3.6), housekeepers (1.2), janitors, (3.6), laborers (1.8), nurses (2.9), restaurant keepers (1.8), agents (1.6), bookkeepers (11.7), clerks and copyists (2.0), messengers and errand boys (cashgirls, etc) (3.6), packers and shippers (7.5), saleswomen (2.3), stenographers and typewriters (13.0), telegraph and telephone operators (13.9), undertakers (1.2), potters (4.9), bakers (1.7), confectioners (5.1), boot and shoemakers (3.2), tanners (3.6), leather-case makers (9.3), clock and watchmakers (1.4), gold and silver workers (7.9), bookbinders (3.1), boxmakers (8.5), in hosiery knitting mills (2.8), hat and capmakers (5.6), shirtmakers (2.8), brushmakers (3.9), glovmakers (6.0), photographers (2.3), tobacco workers (8.0).

The occupations in which women have made the largest gains are: professional service (10.1), boarding-house keepers (9.9), bookkeepers (12.6), stenographers and typewriters (13.0), telegraph and telephone operators (13.9) (the largest advance), trunk and leather-case workers (9.3).

Women are in a majority in only nine occupations—musicians or teachers of music, schoolteachers, boarding-house keepers, housekeepers, laundresses, nurses, servants, stenographers and typewriters.

Men are over 90 per cent. of the workers in 87 out of 303 occupations.

POPULATION OF THE WORLD'S LARGEST CITIES.

CITIES	Cen- sus Year	Popula- tion	CITIES	Cen- sus Year	Popula- tion
London ¹	1901	4,536,541	Cleveland.....	1900	381,768
New York.....	1900	3,437,202	Sheffield.....	1901	380,710
Paris.....	1901	2,714,068	Shanghai.....	st.	380,000
Berlin.....	1900	1,888,848	Cologne.....	1900	372,529
Chicago.....	1900	1,698,575	Lisbon.....	1900	356,009
Vienna.....	1901	1,674,957	Kioto.....	1898	353,139
Canton.....	est.	1,600,000	Buffalo.....	1900	352,387
Tokio, Japan.....	1898	1,440,121	Belfast.....	1901	349,180
Philadelphia.....	1900	1,293,697	Rotterdam.....	1902	348,474
St. Petersburg.....	1897	1,267,023	Mexico City.....	1900	344,721
Calcutta.....	1901	1,125,400	San Francisco.....	1900	342,782
Constantinople.....	est.	1,125,000	Turin.....	1901	335,656
Peking.....	est.	1,000,000	Bristol, England.....	1901	328,842
Moscow.....	1897	988,614	Cincinnati.....	1900	325,902
Buenos Ayres.....	1902	865,490	Pitsburg.....	1900	321,616
Osaka.....	1898	821,235	Alexandria.....	1897	319,766
Bombay.....	1901	776,006	Edinburgh.....	1901	316,479
Rio de Janeiro.....	1900	750,000	Lodz.....	1897	315,209
Glasgow.....	1901	735,906	Palermo.....	1901	309,694
Buda-Pesth.....	1901	732,322	Stockholm.....	1902	305,819
Hamburg.....	1900	705,738	Manila.....	1902	297,154
Liverpool.....	1901	684,947	Santiago, Chile (est.).....	1901	296,695
Warsaw.....	1897	638,209	Dublin.....	1901	290,638
Bangkok.....	est.	600,000	Frankfort-on-Main.....	1900	288,989
St. Louis.....	1900	575,238	New Orleans.....	1900	287,104
Cairo, Egypt.....	1897	570,062	Detroit.....	1900	285,704
Naples.....	1901	563,541	Milwaukee.....	1900	285,315
Brussels ²	1901	562,893	Hong Kong.....	1901	283,905
Boston.....	1900	560,892	Riga.....	1900	282,943
Manchester, England.....	1901	543,969	Bucharest.....	1899	282,071
Madrid.....	1900	539,835	Teheran.....	est.	280,000
Amsterdam.....	1902	538,815	Bradford.....	1901	279,809
Barcelona.....	1900	533,090	Washington.....	1900	278,718
Birmingham, England.....	1901	522,182	Antwerp.....	1901	278,093
Madras.....	1901	509,346	Montevideo.....	1902	276,034
Baltimore.....	1900	508,957	Montreal.....	1901	267,730
Munich.....	1900	499,932	West Ham, England.....	1901	267,308
Melbourne ²	1901	496,079	Lucknow.....	1901	264,049
Milan.....	1901	491,460	Nuremberg.....	1900	261,081
Marseilles.....	1901	491,161	Bordeaux.....	1901	257,638
Sydney ²	1901	481,830	Kiev.....	1897	247,432
Copenhagen ²	1901	476,806	Newark.....	1900	246,070
Rome.....	1901	462,783	Nagoya.....	1898	244,145
Lyons.....	1901	459,099	Hull.....	1901	240,618
Leipzig.....	1900	456,124	Nottingham.....	1901	239,753
Haidarabad ²	1901	448,466	Havana.....	1899	235,981
Leeds.....	1901	428,953	Hanover.....	1900	235,649
Breslau.....	1900	422,709	Rangoon.....	1901	234,881
Odessa.....	1897	405,041	Genoa.....	1901	234,710
Dresden.....	1900	396,146	Magdeburg.....	1900	229,667

¹Population of Greater London (metropolitan and city police districts), 6,581,372. ²With suburbs.

NOTE.—The population of Chinese cities other than Canton, Peking, and Shanghai is omitted, because reports respecting it are utterly untrustworthy.

A hundred years ago the United States had only six cities of 8,000 inhabitants or more; in 1880, 286; in 1890, 443; in 1900, there were 515. A hundred years ago 3 per cent. of our population was urban; now about 33 per cent.

This is not peculiar to our new civilizations. London is probably two thousand years old, and yet four-fifths of its growth have been added during the century just past. For sixty years Berlin has grown far more rapidly than New York. Paris is more than four times as large as it was in 1800. Rome has doubled since 1870. St. Petersburg has increased nearly threefold in seventy-five years. Odessa is a thousand years old, but nineteen-twentieths of its population have been added since 1800. Calcutta has increased four hundred and sixty per cent. in seventy years. In Europe, Asia, and Africa we find this movement of population from country to city. It is a world-phenomenon, and due to a redistribution of population.

SOCIAL PROGRESS

THE UNITED STATES.

CONDITIONS IN THE 160 CITIES HAVING AT LEAST 25,000 INHABITANTS.

From the Census, 1900.

Per cent. Negro.	Per cent foreign born.	PER CENT. OF POPULATION OF ¹ SCHOOL AGE ATTENDING SCHOOL			PER CENT. ILLITERATE IN POPULATION AT LEAST 10 YEARS OF AGE.			
		Total.	White.	Negro.	Total.	White.	White.	
							Native.	Foreign. born.
5.8	26	51.9	52.5	40.6	5.7	4.4	0.7	11.6

¹ School age is 5 to 20.

PER CENT. OF SEX AND MARITAL CONDITION IN THE 160 CITIES.

MALES.					FEMALES.				
Single.	Married.	Widowed.	Divorced	Unknown.	Single	Married.	Widowed.	Divorced	nknown
42.1	52.8	4.3	0.3	0.5	35.2	51.7	12.4	0.5	0.2

PER CENT. OF PRIVATE FAMILIES HAVING HOMES IN THE 160 CITIES.

Total.	Owned Free.	Mortgaged.	Hired.
25.7	14.5	11.2	74.3

POPULATION LIVING IN CITIES.

STATE OR TERRITORY.	Total.	In cities ¹ of—					In country districts.
		At least 100,000.	25,000 to 100,000.	8,000 to 25,000.	4,000 to 8,000.	2,500 to 4,000.	
United States . .	75,994,575	14,208,347	5,509,965	5,273,887	3,380,193	2,211,019	45,411,164
Per cent	18.7	7.3	6.9	4.4	2.9	59.8	
N. Atlantic Div.	35.3	12.2	10.6	6.1	3.5	31.8	
S. Atlantic Div .	7.5	4.9	4.6	2.6	1.8	78.6	
N. Central Div. .	17.9	5.2	7.4	4.9	3.1	61.5	
S. Central Div. .	4.2	4.2	2.6	2.4	2.1	84.5	
Western Div. . .	14.1	11.1	6.0	4.7	4.7	59.4	

¹ Includes the population of all incorporated places having at least 2,500 inhabitants, all New England towns of like size and not containing an incorporated place.

NOTE.—It is often said that if farming could be made efficiently remunerative, the tendency of population from country to city would be arrested; hence the advocacy of more scientific methods of agriculture. But scientific agriculture, on the contrary, tends to stimulate the disproportionate growth of the city. The amount of farm produce that can be marketed is limited, because the amount of food that the world can eat is limited; and the more each farmer produces, the fewer farmers does it take to supply the market. Scientific farming is profitable, because by means of it a given amount of effort produces large results. It follows, therefore, that the more scientific agriculture becomes, the smaller will be the percentage of the population that can gain a livelihood by it.

The remarkable discovery that the inoculation of the soil with cultures or nitrogen-fixing bacteria (see page 60) increases certain crops many fold, will give an added impetus to the tide which is flowing from the country to the city.

SOCIAL PROGRESS

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STATISTICS OF CITIES.

COMPILED FROM BULLETIN OF DEPARTMENT OF LABOR FOR SEPTEMBER, 1902

CITIES.	Estimated Population Jan. 1, 1902	Acres land.	Mar- riages (²)	Di- vorces granted.	Total Births.	Birth rate.	Still Births	Death rate ³
New York, N. Y.	3,583,930	209,218.00	33,447	817	80,735	22.53	5,750	19.73
Chicago, Ill.	1,800,000	115,164.00	16,684	1,808	26,995	15.00	1,674	13.56
Philadelphia	1,335,000	83,340.12	9,912	492	28,215	21.13	1,288	18.08
St. Louis, Mo.	595,000	39,276.80	(²)	573	10,705	17.99	686	17.82
Boston, Mass.	573,579	26,247.00	6,312	446	15,608	27.21	576	19.70
Baltimore, Md.	520,000	19,290.24	4,890	170	8,795	16.91	672	20.15
Cleveland, O.	390,000	21,040.00	3,199	454	8,037	20.61	328	14.96
Buffalo, N. Y.	370,000	26,884.54	3,448	88	6,924	18.71	387	14.49
San Francisco, Cal.	350,000	29,760.00	3,656	846	4,875	13.93	264	20.02
Cincinnati, Ohio.	340,000	22,560.00	3,518	405	5,091	14.97	425	18.10
Pittsburg, Pa.	333,500	18,171.17	3,443	186	7,624	22.86	505	19.77
New Orleans, La.	300,000	(¹)	2,104	151	6,639	22.13	442	21.59
Detroit, Mich.	300,000	18,474.64	2,681	297	2,818	9.39	365	15.04
Milwaukee, Wis.	297,500	14,205.71	2,460	225	7,415	24.92	328	12.88
Washington, D. C.	287,000	38,419.20	3,183	168	4,531	15.79	524	21.21
Newark, N. J.	255,000	8,058.45	2,441	(¹)	6,016	23.59	324	18.85
Jersey City, N. J.	213,577	8,053.00	2,062	(¹)	4,462	20.89	285	18.93
Louisville, Ky.	215,000	12,800.00	1,559	174	3,800	17.67	249	16.27
Minneapolis, Minn.	210,000	(¹)	(¹)	180	4,105	19.55	259	11.95
Providence, R. I.	178,000	11,357.60	1,875	327	4,696	26.38	216	19.35
Indianapolis, Ind.	182,500	17,792.00	2,608	471	3,377	18.50	112	14.13
Kansas City, Mo.	172,500	16,640.00	1,704	420	2,989	17.33	119	15.50
St. Paul, Minn.	170,000	(¹)	1,478	194	3,227	18.98	102	10.62
Rochester, N. Y.	170,000	11,303.00	1,492	156	2,914	17.14	158	14.51
Denver, Colo.	140,000	(¹)	1,918	162	(¹)	(¹)	98	19.51

¹ Not reported. ² In some cases includes county. ³ On basis of estimated population January, 1902, not including still births.

CITIES.	Police- men.	Licensed retail liquor saloons.		Total arrests.	Parks, acres. (⁶)	Waterworks.	
		Num- ber.	Amt. of license.			Owned and operated by city.	Cost.
New York, N. Y.	7,233	10,821	(²)	133,749	6,837.60	Yes	\$123,012,020
Chicago, Ill.	2,974	6,740	\$500	69,809	2,185.82	Yes	35,310,099
Philadelphia, Pa.	2,822	1,737	1,100	61,189	4,005.96	Yes	37,971,959
St. Louis, Mo.	1,264	2,253	500	23,666	2,183.39	Yes	21,551,600
Boston, Mass.	1,245	980	(³)	34,500	2,620.00	Yes	15,782,617
Baltimore, Md.	947	2,095	250	31,423	1,284.34	Yes	15,035,835
Cleveland, Ohio	361	1,820	350	19,219	1,438.19	Yes	10,735,867
Buffalo, N. Y.	732	2,570	500	25,057	1,049.00	Yes	9,424,404
San Francisco, Cal.	586	3,052	84	27,362	1,197.43	No	
Cincinnati, Ohio	486	1,676	350	12,913	539.00	Yes	13,500,000
Pittsburg, Pa.	497	572	1,100	23,067	910.00	Yes	7,667,824
New Orleans, La.	271	1,496	(⁶)	17,221	522.66	No	
Detroit, Mich.	492	1,252	500	7,795	1,199.00	Yes	6,313,757
Milwaukee, Wis.	314	1,869	200	5,260	503.00	Yes	5,068,443
Washington, D. C.	607	492	400	26,062	.98	Yes	10,464,827
Newark, N. J.	360	1,283	250	6,399	19.99	Yes	9,963,614
Jersey City, N. J.	357	1,021	250	7,343	22.20	Yes	5,100,000
Louisville, Ky.	339	887	155	7,396	1,350.00	Yes	6,163,926
Minneapolis, Minn.	212	351	1,000	5,292	1,581.01	Yes	4,602,708
Providence, R. I.	310	461	400	9,025	540.00	Yes	7,097,130
Indianapolis, Ind.	165	525	350	7,033	1,235.00	Yes	27,750
Kansas City, Mo.	222	475	250	16,230	1,896.91	Yes	4,175,600
St. Paul, Minn.	177	314	1,000	3,881	1,204.42	Yes	4,049,854
Rochester, N. Y.	193	506	500	(¹)	670.50	Yes	7,463,129
Denver, Colo.	85	361	600	7,678	521.00	Yes	260,000

¹ Not reported. ² \$100-800. ³ Innkeepers \$2,000, common victualers, \$1,000; 2d and 3d classes, \$500. ⁴ 75 more for six months. ⁵ \$100-1,000. ⁶ Owned by city. ⁷ Owned by city, but leased.

CITIES.	Total Debt.	Sinking fund.	Legal borrowing limit.	Assessed Valuation.	
				Real.	Personal.
New York, N. Y.	\$432,481,295	\$121,340,920	10 per cent. ²	\$3,237,778,261	\$550,192,612
Chicago, Ill.	36,937,874	534,341	5 per cent.	259,254,598	115,325,844
Philadelphia, Pa.	61,374,501	13,615,842	7 per cent.	919,706,697	1,649,799
St. Louis, Mo.	18,916,278	653,866	5 per cent.	342,325,544	52,470,160
Boston, Mass.	79,954,972	32,802,887	2½ per cent.	925,037,500	227,468,334
Baltimore, Md.	40,164,683	9,315,978	No limit.	258,304,425	175,039,397
Cleveland, Ohio.	17,902,903	3,177,480	7 per cent.	143,323,490	53,130,155
Buffalo, N. Y.	18,349,494	612,466	10 per cent.	221,405,290	20,943,848
San Francisco, Cal.	738,394	220,618	289,682,092	123,417,901
Cincinnati, Ohio.	32,494,511	5,413,256	No limit.	170,173,990	44,476,630
Pittsburg, Pa.	24,422,156	5,825,363	7 per cent.	347,560,580	4,596,755
New Orleans, La.	17,902,808	108,079,794	37,594,075
Detroit, Mich.	6,946,102	2,061,078	2 per cent.	175,766,620	71,481,880
Milwaukee, Wis.	6,860,686	5 per cent.	134,135,624	31,089,263
Washington, D. C.	15,288,532	1,153,880	180,334,641	12,567,084
Newark, N. J.	19,731,000	4,928,561	No limit.	129,832,105	28,753,530
Jersey City, N. J.	19,690,179	3,484,653	No limit.	86,241,745	9,360,817
Louisville, Ky.	10,451,000	2,118,166	10 per cent.	90,200,000	33,900,000
Minneapolis, Minn.	8,561,000	1,877,103	5 per cent.	80,129,845	22,082,661
Providence, R. I.	17,321,461	3,291,615	30 per cent.	151,533,940	41,267,920
Indianapolis, Ind.	4,051,735	2 per cent.	94,935,180	34,249,778
Kansas City, Mo.	6,477,066	401,291	5 per cent.	59,001,060	20,775,781
St. Paul, Minn.	9,337,500	706,613	No limit.	71,067,159	15,890,170
Rochester, N. Y.	10,691,849	445,831	10 per cent.	107,303,311	9,145,662
Denver, Colo.	12,042,982	153,890	3 per cent.

¹ Not including \$1,660,305 bonds against private property. ² Of assessed valuation, not including water debt. ³ Including \$1,157,400 liable for State purposes only and \$211,334,194 franchises.

INCOME.

CITIES.	Tax rate total. ¹	Property tax.	Franchise tax.	Liquor licenses.	Waterworks.	Total. ⁶
New York, N. Y. ...	(2)	\$76,886,091	\$2,364,636	\$5,557,593	\$8,050,900	\$249,184,086
Chicago, Ill.	\$52.61	18,404,033	151,013	3,213,298	3,399,030	43,315,277
Philadelphia, Pa.	18.50	18,317,731	1,742,175	3,290,565	48,387,684
St. Louis, Mo.	19.50	6,480,602	205,109	1,051,969	1,756,566	17,043,757
Boston, Mass.	14.90	17,074,057	58,213	1,437,281	2,252,780	49,074,577
Baltimore, Md.	19.85	5,857,230	304,159	408,798	967,262	10,227,940
Cleveland, Ohio	26.70	3,424,381	74,632	442,155	784,475	13,809,910
Buffalo, N. Y.	23.72	4,371,239	51,574	566,955	685,370	9,592,036
San Francisco, Cal.	15.56	7,695,559	9,463	266,557	10,398,372
Cincinnati, Ohio	24.82	4,047,775	400,740	832,218	11,355,612
Pittsburg, Pa.	17.00	5,051,954	515,723	863,057	16,780,214
New Orleans, La.	29.00	3,359,393	151,500	9,544,183
Detroit, Mich.	19.64	3,876,175	28,125	273,889	187,924	7,617,574
Milwaukee, Wis.	22.46	2,868,184	115,913	351,710	401,297	5,653,722
Washington, D. C.	15.00	2,958,719	239,493	440,276	10,569,221
Newark, N. J.	21.40	3,364,549	82,589	325,165	810,821	12,449,662
Jersey City, N. J.	28.00	2,473,112	2,328	253,079	913,544	7,257,365
Louisville, Ky.	21.95	2,142,866	165,000	136,565	389,655	4,605,324
Minneapolis, Minn.	29.86	2,770,618	3,925	351,000	251,121	4,580,645
Providence, R. I.	16.00	3,049,578	117,509	4120,826	614,989	5,560,472
Indianapolis, Ind.	19.50	1,482,142	57,045	177,988	2,059	3,321,845
Kansas City, Mo.	30.40	1,873,327	18,389	119,966	494,468	5,789,478
St. Paul, Minn.	26.90	1,499,857	1,810	314,000	301,938	4,603,532
Rochester, N. Y.	19.04	³ 2,008,750	182,751	407,251	8,417,703
Denver, Colo.	32.40	1,379,568	214,685	3,104,851

¹ Includes State and county tax. ² Varies in different boroughs from \$23.17 to \$25.38. ³ Including franchise tax. ⁴ Seven months. ⁵ Six months. ⁶ Includes receipts from State for schools. ⁷ \$4,863,459, cash in sinking fund; \$2,571,548, from docks and wharves; \$780,949, from ferries and bridges; \$309,520, markets.

"It is better to be an optimist after full inquiry than a pessimist without."
Attributed to Sir William Harcourt.

EXPENDITURES.

CITIES.	For mainten- ance and operation.	Police depart- ment.	Police courts, jails, work- houses, re- formatories, etc.	Hospitals, asylums, almshouses, and other charities.	Schools.
New York, N. Y.	\$102,946,573	\$10,199,206	\$1,310,411	\$4,754,380	\$19,731,629
Chicago, Ill.	22,260,661	3,685,982	258,369	14,018	8,203,493
Philadelphia, Pa.	19,106,707	3,036,264	1,240,279	706,430	3,319,604
St. Louis, Mo.	8,715,821	1,602,182	113,632	660,656	1,526,140
Boston, Mass.	21,898,291	1,754,151	1,130,945	1,207,768	3,043,640
Baltimore, Md.	7,613,756	967,823	122,431	310,367	1,417,392
Cleveland, Ohio.	4,805,717	417,932	116,087	142,985	1,257,345
Buffalo, N. Y.	5,865,286	793,294	24,049	135,686	1,161,834
San Francisco, Cal.	5,891,297	789,251	161,965	258,410	1,166,763
Cincinnati, Ohio.	6,215,866	555,185	133,370	237,922	1,126,631
Pittsburg, Pa.	5,406,446	490,287	147,703	843,648
New Orleans, La.	4,297,808	231,374	37,073	59,290	478,025
Detroit, Mich.	4,055,966	542,049	11,400	56,588	869,713
Milwaukee, Wis.	3,733,315	342,508	36,448	9,610	764,968
Washington, D. C.	5,387,271	687,922	275,649	407,401	1,182,916
Newark, N. J.	3,812,511	428,495	41,109	125,130	830,081
Jersey City, N. J.	3,598,464	421,616	23,598	500,332
Louisville, Ky.	2,774,987	273,615	106,475	65,465	512,947
Minneapolis, Minn.	2,944,208	216,698	33,981	90,178	736,981
Providence, R. I.	3,465,201	371,875	4,957	39,436	739,695
Indianapolis, Ind.	1,706,434	159,579	2,635	38,399	558,630
Kansas City, Mo.	2,751,935	255,850	25,212	41,841	555,272
St. Paul, Minn.	2,368,991	184,539	36,208	24,750	584,702
Rochester, N. Y.	3,238,368	198,471	16,072	87,108	550,031
Denver, Colo.	1,889,983	160,605	11,339	34,882	679,071

SIZE OF FAMILIES AND PERSONS IN A DWELLING.

CERTAIN CITIES: 1880-1900.

CITIES.	Persons to a Family.			Persons to a Dwelling.			Per cent. of population in dwellings with 20 or over.	
	1880.	1890.	1900.	1880.	1890.	1900.	1890.	1900.
Boston, Mass.	5.0	5.0	4.8	8.3	8.5	8.4	13.9	14.6
Chicago, Ill.	5.2	5.0	4.7	8.2	8.6	8.8	16.6	17.9
Cincinnati, Ohio.	4.9	4.7	4.4	9.1	8.9	8.0	21.9	16.1
Denver, Colo.	6.0	5.4	4.3	6.7	5.9	4.9
Jersey City, N. J.	5.0	4.7	4.6	8.6	8.8	8.7	23.5	25.1
Kansas City, Mo.	4.7	4.4	5.0	4.9
New York, N. Y.	4.7	13.9	54.4
Manhattan & Bronx	5.0	4.8	4.7	16.4	18.5	20.4	66.7	72.6
Brooklyn, N. Y.	4.9	4.7	4.6	9.1	9.8	10.2	25.7	31.4
Philadelphia, Pa.	5.1	5.1	4.9	5.8	5.6	5.4
San Francisco.	5.4	5.7	4.8	6.9	6.3	6.4
St. Louis, Mo.	5.4	4.9	4.6	8.1	7.4	7.0

The size of the family is lessening in all these cities. Over-crowding is increasing in Boston, Chicago, Jersey City, New York and Brooklyn; it is lessening in Cincinnati, Denver, Kansas City, Philadelphia, San Francisco and St. Louis tenements.

OWNERSHIP OF HOMES.

In New York, Manhattan and Bronx Boroughs, in 1890 only 6.3 per cent. of the families owned their homes; in 1900 only 5.9; in Brooklyn, 18.6 and 18.0; in Boston, 18.4 and 18.9; Chicago, 28.7 and 25.1; Denver, 29.1 and 28.0; Philadelphia, 22.8 and 22.1; St. Louis, 20.5 and 22.8; San Francisco, 21.5 and 24.1.

SOCIAL PROGRESS

TENEMENT HOUSES.

In most cities the housing problem is the problem of the small house, rather than of the large tenement. Often the worst tenements are in houses once fine, built for single families, but now occupied by five or six families. New York City alone has this evil and the evil of large tenements also. The latter are of five, six or even seven floors, built usually on a lot 25x100 feet and with three or four families on each floor. More than two-thirds of New York's millions live in tenements. Many of them in the "double deckers" with 100 to 150 persons to a house, under conditions of over-crowding to which London's slums are ideal—bad as London's conditions may be in some other directions. Rents in these buildings are from \$12 to \$18 per month for four rooms, two often mere bed closets, opening only on a narrow shaft and generally totally dark. There are 350,000 interior rooms in the New York tenements. In the public hallway, opposite the stairs, two waterclosets are usually provided for fifteen to twenty-four families. These closets open into the air shafts which ventilate the bed closets. For notice of progress made, see "Model Dwellings."

Next to New York (including Brooklyn), Boston has the worst tenement houses in the United States, although very high tenements are few in number. Chicago, compared with New York, has been said to have no tenement house problem, yet the Chicago City Homes Association in the winter of 1900-1901 found some areas very densely crowded. One-seventh of one acre had a ratio of 900 to the acre. Double deckers were on the increase, and there were then almost 100 within a limited field of investigation. Philadelphia, the City of Homes, owes her system very largely to her Building Loan Associations. Baltimore has no problem like New York, though her system of narrow alleys leads to sanitary abuses. Cincinnati, after New York and Boston, has the third worst tenements, having many, only less high than those of New York. Pittsburg is one of the few American cities where conditions are growing worse. Kansas City has a somewhat serious problem and Jersey City one still more serious. Hartford, for its size, is said to have the worst housing conditions in the country. San Francisco, Denver, New Orleans, Detroit, Milwaukee, Washington, St. Paul, Minneapolis, Providence, Rochester, Columbus have as yet developed no problem comparable to New York and Boston.

PARKS AND PLAYGROUNDS.

(From Statistics Prepared by the United States Government.)

CITIES.	Area. Acreage Owned by city.	Valuation.			Expenditures etc. Parks and Gardens.
		Land and Buildings.	Apparatus.	Total.	
New York, N. Y.	6,909.00	\$296,235,525.00	\$636,266.00	\$296,871,791.00	\$1,408,830.00
Chicago, Ill.	2,151.49	61,514,900.00	1,500,000.00	63,014,900.00	442,110.00
Philadelphia, Pa.	4,044.09	(2)	(3)	22,788,344.00	458,202.00
St. Louis, Mo.	2,176.59	8,149,310.00	6,407.00	8,155,807.00	133,122.00
Boston, Mass.	2,618.06	(2)	(2)	53,023,400.00	233,444.00
Baltimore, Md.	1,136.01	(2)	(2)	(2)	302,168.00
Cleveland, Ohio.	1,326.19	6,908,846.00	15,000.00	6,923,846.00	71,975.00
Buffalo, N. Y.	1,025.50	3,637,255.00	12,000.00	3,649,255.00	173,751.00
San Francisco, Cal.	1,192.67	(2)	(2)	12,000,000.00	208,361.00
Cincinnati, Ohio.	539.00	1,499,000.00	1,000.00	1,500,000.00	43,996.00
Pittsburg, Pa.	880.00	3,319,959.00	25,000.00	3,344,959.00
New Orleans, La.	552.66	5,000,000.00	50,000.00	5,050,000.00	9,655.00
Detroit, Mich.	1,055.61	(2)	(2)	6,255,000.00	91,900.00
Milwaukee, Wis.	435.03	(2)	(2)	2,493,776.00	82,992.00
Washington, D. C.	(1) .98	300,000.00	300,000.00	22,050.00
Newark, N. J.	19.18	500,000.00	500,000.00	4,601.00

¹ Washington, D. C.; 3,596.27 acres owned by the United States Government. ² Not given.

PUBLIC BATHS.

COMPILED FROM A BULLETIN OF THE UNITED STATES BUREAU OF LABOR FOR SEPTEMBER, 1904.

The results of an extensive investigation, conducted by the Federal Bureau of Labor showed the lack of facilities for bathing in the congested slum districts of Baltimore, Chicago, New York, and Philadelphia. The entire number of persons reported living in the selected districts on April 1, 1893, the date of the investigation, was as follows: Baltimore, 18,048; Chicago, 19,748; New York, 28,996, and Philadelphia, 17,060. It is explained in the report that the districts selected contain but a portion of the whole slum population of the cities included in the investigation, but were among the worst in these cities—the centres of the slum population.

The following:

NUMBER AND PER CENT. OF FAMILIES AND INDIVIDUALS IN HOUSES OR TENEMENTS HAVING AND NOT HAVING BATH ROOMS.

CITY	POPULATION OF HOUSES OR TENEMENTS HAVING BATHROOMS				POPULATION OF HOUSES OR TENEMENTS NOT HAVING BATHROOMS			
	Number		Per cent.		Number		Per cent.	
	Families	Individuals	Families	Individuals	Families	Individuals	Families	Individuals
Baltimore.	296	1,663	7.35	9.21	3,732	16,385	92.65	90.79
Chicago.	110	748	2.83	3.79	3,771	19,000	97.17	96.21
New York.	138	1,888	2.33	6.51	5,774	27,108	97.67	93.49
Philadelphia.	560	3,080	16.90	18.05	2,753	13,980	83.10	81.95

Since that date large progress has been made. A report of the Bureau, prepared for the exhibit at St. Louis of 1904, finds that in 34 cities of the United States more or less adequate provision for public baths has been made by the municipality. Other cities are carefully considering the establishment of houses and in some cases, notably in St. Louis, appropriations have been made for the purpose. The report describes and tabulates 88 municipal public baths and 11 non-municipal.

The municipal baths in existence may be classified in a general way into five types: The beach bath, the floating bath, the pool bath, the shower bath, and the combined shower and pool bath. The beach and the floating baths may be said to represent the earliest type of bath, while the shower bath represents the latest development in this direction.

Beach baths, with the simplest of accommodations, have been in existence for many years. The L Street Beach in Boston is, however, the oldest of them for which information could be secured, having been established in 1866. Boston now maintains 10 beach baths; Milwaukee, 4; Chicago, 3; Baltimore, 3, while one or two are found in Cleveland, Ohio; St. Paul and Minneapolis, Minn.; Cambridge, Mass.; Detroit, Mich., and Bridgeport, Conn.

Floating baths were established by the city of Boston as early as 1866 and by the city of New York as early as 1870. Boston still maintains 12 of these houses, New York 15, and Brooklyn 5. One or two baths of this character are maintained also by Providence, R. I.; Hoboken, N. J.; Springfield, Taunton, Worcester, and Newton, Mass.; Hartford, Conn., and Washington, D. C.

Pool baths are of various kinds. The first established by any American city, as far as known, was constructed in 1885 by Philadelphia. That city was compelled to abolish its floating baths at that time owing to the pollution of the water, replacing them with pools in various parts of the city. It now has in operation 15 pool baths. Chicago has two elaborate baths of this character,

while similar ones are found in Holyoke (4) and Boston (1), Mass.; Newark, N. J. (3); Utica, N. Y. (1), and Kansas City, Mo. (1).

The three kinds of baths just mentioned, it will be noted, are available only in the warm season—perhaps four months in the year. While they are excellent as affording recreation and facilities for securing a degree of cleanliness, it is apparent that the best results can not be secured thereby. Hot water is essential not only to a thorough cleansing of the body, but also to render possible the giving of baths during the season when baths are most needed and when the facilities for bathing are most lacking. The tub bath, while serving a useful purpose under certain circumstances, has now been almost entirely abandoned in public baths. It is now very generally conceded that the shower or rain bath is best adapted for all public purposes. As has been stated, these baths have been in use for many years in many of the public baths in Great Britain and the continent of Europe. Their general establishment by municipalities in this country, however, began about ten years ago. Baths of this character were, indeed, established by private philanthropic enterprise some years previously through the efforts of Doctor Baruch and others, and had been introduced in the Charlesbank gymnasium baths by the city of Boston as early as 1889. If the two modern types of baths, consisting of showers alone, or showers in connection with a pool are considered together, it is seen that Milwaukee established the West Side Natatorium in 1890, Chicago opened the Carter H. Harrison Bath in 1894, while other cities followed their example during the succeeding years. At the present time 39 baths of these types are now in operation by various cities in the United States, and many more are under construction. Of the houses devoted especially to the furnishing of shower baths, Boston, Mass., maintains 10; Chicago, Ill., 7; New York, N. Y., 3; Brooklyn, N. Y., 2; Baltimore, Md., 2; Buffalo, N. Y., 2; Yonkers, N. Y., 2; while 1 each is maintained by Rochester and Troy, N. Y.; Cleveland, Ohio; Louisville, Ky. and Portland, Me. Of the houses containing a pool in addition to the shower equipment, Milwaukee maintains 3 and Brookline, Mass., and Syracuse and Albany, N. Y., each 1. New York and Brooklyn recently opened elaborate bath houses in which the equipment consists almost entirely of showers. These cities have also planned a number of additional houses, one of which will contain a pool of tempered water in addition to the shower equipment.

The costs of the baths range from \$461,000 (site \$331,000) for a bath now being built in Boston, to \$500 for one in Chicago (for building and equipment only on public land).

The exceedingly small cost of maintenance per bath is clearly shown. This cost ranges from one-fourth of a cent in the 15 municipal pool baths of Philadelphia to 3 or 4 cents in the indoor shower baths in the larger cities. In a few of the smaller cities the cost runs considerably higher, this being due probably to the small number of bathers as compared with the size and equipment of the houses.

As regards the policy of furnishing baths entirely free of expense to bathers it is seen that at the floating baths in 9 cities no fee is charged for their use, while small fees are charged at such baths in 3 cities. In 3 cities all beach baths under the direct control of the municipalities are entirely free, while in 8 cities a small charge is made for the use of bathing suits, etc. In 3 cities all pool baths are entirely free, while in 4 a small fee is charged. In 9 cities free shower baths are found, while in 4 a charge is made. In 1 city the combination shower and pool baths are entirely free, while in 3 cities the privilege is contingent upon a small fee.

In considering the figures showing cost of maintenance per bath it should be remembered that in nearly all baths in which a fee is charged certain days or hours are usually set apart, during which baths are given free of charge.

A most interesting development of the public bath movement has been the introduction of shower baths in the public schools in a number of cities.

In certain cities a direct connection between the bath and the school is encouraged by locating the public bath near the school.

Swimming instruction during vacation is a feature of the floating, beach, and pool baths of New York, Brooklyn, and a number of other cities, while all indoor baths which maintain a tempered pool all the year, without exception, provide for instruction of this character during the entire year.

The public laundry is a feature connected with a number of the public municipal baths. The municipal bath houses of Baltimore, Chicago, Cleveland, and Troy contain well-appointed public laundries where women may take their soiled clothes and in a comparatively short time accomplish the task of washing and ironing under the most desirable conditions. This feature has been a most unqualified success in all the institutions in which it exists, and is an especial boon to the poorer classes.

LIBRARIES.

LIBRARIES OF 1,000 VOLUMES AND OVER IN 1903.

(From the Report of the Bureau of Education.)

STATE OR TERRITORY	Libraries	Volumes	STATE OR TERRITORY	Libraries	Volumes
Alabama.....	58	240,591	Nebraska.....	82	417,295
Arizona.....	8	31,197	Nevada.....	5	35,644
Arkansas.....	35	189,529	New Hampshire.....	169	900,296
California.....	297	2,142,867	New Jersey.....	200	1,464,551
Colorado.....	77	468,741	New Mexico.....	11	45,361
Connecticut.....	223	1,824,442	New York.....	924	9,079,863
Delaware.....	17	133,755	North Carolina.....	84	374,778
District of Columbia.....	90	2,712,693	North Dakota.....	25	69,193
Florida.....	26	87,279	Ohio.....	354	2,841,401
Georgia.....	66	364,196	Oklahoma.....	11	50,282
Idaho.....	14	41,335	Oregon.....	31	152,225
Illinois.....	395	3,170,932	Pennsylvania.....	491	4,580,312
Indian Territory.....	5	9,200	Rhode Island.....	89	851,394
Indiana.....	197	1,175,945	South Carolina.....	54	362,653
Iowa.....	233	1,100,011	South Dakota.....	37	109,087
Kansas.....	145	679,205	Tennessee.....	86	454,782
Kentucky.....	85	582,018	Texas.....	104	420,517
Louisiana.....	54	380,984	Utah.....	24	109,210
Maine.....	167	921,853	Vermont.....	119	566,275
Maryland.....	89	1,303,964	Virginia.....	85	532,811
Massachusetts.....	624	7,616,994	Washington.....	40	233,152
Michigan.....	234	1,586,709	West Virginia.....	37	152,893
Minnesota.....	170	940,688	Wisconsin.....	229	1,257,747
Mississippi.....	46	196,400	Wyoming.....	9	57,315
Missouri.....	183	1,194,247			
Montana.....	31	206,210	United States.....	6,869	54,419,002

STATISTICS OF THE PRESS.

"Rowell's American Newspaper Directory" for 1904 reports the number of newspapers published in the United States and Canada as 23,265. Of these, 1,083 were Canadian publications. The following was the frequency of issue: Weekly, 16,595; monthly, 2,980; daily, 2,402; semi-monthly, 308; semi-weekly, 593; quarterly, 201; bi-weekly, 64; bi-monthly, 63; tri-weekly, 55. Total, 23,265.

In 1901 there were twenty-three papers published in Hawaii, eight in Porto Rico, and four (in English) in the Philippines.

The total number of newspapers published in the world at present is estimated at about 50,000, distributed as follows: United States, and Canada, 23,265; Germany, 7,500; Great Britain, 9,500; France, 4,500; Japan, 2,000; Italy, 1,500; Austria-Hungary, 1,200; Asia, exclusive of Japan, 1,000; Spain, 850; Russia, 800; Australia, 800; Greece, 600; Switzerland, 450; Holland, 300; Belgium, 300; all others, 1,000. Of these more than half are printed in the English language.

PROGRESS OF THE U
CONDENSED FROM OFFICIAL FIGUR

ALL FINANCIAL VALUES IN DOLLARS.	1800.	1810.	1820.	1830	1840.
Area, square miles ¹	827,844	1,999,775	2,059,043	2,059,043	2,059,043
Population.....	5,308,483	7,239,881	9,658,453	12,866,020	17,069,453
Population per sq. mile.....	6.41	3.62	4.68	6.25	8.29
Wealth ²					
Wealth per capita.....					
Pub. debt, less cash in Tr. ⁴	82,976,294.35	53,173,217.52	91,015,566.15	48,565,406.50	3,573,343.82
Debt, per cap., less Tr. cash..	15.63	7.34	9.42	3.77	.21
Circulation per capita.....					
National banks.....					
National banks—capital.....					
Bank clearings, total.....					
Deposits in savings banks.....			1,138,576	6,973,304	14,051,520
Depositors in savs. banks.....			8,635	38,085	78,701
Farms and prop., value of.....					
Farm products, value of.....					
Manufacturing estab'gments.....					
Manufactures, value of.....					
Receipts—Net ordinary.....	10,848,749	9,384,214	17,840,670	24,844,117	19,480,115
Customs.....	809,397	8,583,309	15,005,612	21,922,391	13,499,502
Expenditures—Net ordin..	7,411,370	5,311,082	13,134,531	13,229,533	24,139,920
War.....	2,560,879	2,294,324	2,630,392	4,767,129	7,095,267
Navy.....	3,448,716	1,654,244	4,387,990	3,239,429	6,113,897
Pensions.....	64,131	83,744	4,208,376	1,363,297	2,603,562
Interest.....	3,402,601	3,163,671	5,151,004	1,912,575	174,598
Imports of merchandise.....	91,252,768	85,400,000	74,450,000	62,720,956	98,258,708
Imp. of merch. per capita.....	17.19	11.80	7.71	4.87	5.76
Exports of merchandise.....	70,971,780	66,757,970	69,691,669	71,670,735	123,668,932
Exports of mer. per capita.....	13.97	9.22	7.22	5.57	7.25
Exp. of iron and steel.....		139,000	57,000	309,473	1,104,458
agricultural products.....		33,502,000	41,657,673	46,977,322	92,548,066
manufactures.....		3,897,570	3,891,869	6,641,016	11,149,621
Farm animals, tot. value of.....					
Production of gold.....		¹² 2,463	¹² 73,112	¹² 564,950	¹² 11,697,829
silver.....					
coal, tons.....			⁹ 365	179,734	864,379
Petroleum, gals.....					
Pig iron, tons.....			20,000	165,000	286,903
Steel, tons.....					
Copper, tons.....					¹¹ 100
Wool, pounds.....					35,802,114
Wheat, bushels.....					84,823,272
Corn, bushels.....					377,531,875
Cotton, bales.....	155,556	340,000	606,061	976,845	2,177,835
Sugar, tons.....					69,246
Cotton exported, pounds.....				298,459,102	743,941,061
Railways in oper., miles.....				23	2,818
Passengers carried.....					
Frt. car. 1 mile, tons.....					
Frt. rates p. ton p. mile.....					
American ves. built, tons.....	106,261	127,575	51,394	58,560	121,204
In foreign trade, tons..	669,921	984,269	619,048	576,475	899,765
In domestic trade, tons	301,919	440,175	660,065	614,508	1,280,999
Commercial failures.....					
Number.....					
Amount of liabilities.....					
Postoffices.....	903	2,300	4,500	8,450	13,468
Receipts of postoffices.....	280,804	551,684	1,111,927	1,850,583	4,543,522
Telegraph messages sent.....					
Newspapers and periodicals.....		¹⁴ 359		¹⁵ 861	1,403
Public schools, salaries.....					
Patents issued.....					1,465
Immigrants arrived.....			¹⁷ 8,385	23,322	84,066

¹Exclusive of Alaska and islands. ²True valuation of real and personal property. ³Estimated. ⁴Total debt prior to 1850. ⁵Imports for consumption after 1860. ⁶Domestic exports only after 1860. ⁷Includes manufactures. ⁸Does not include value of animals in cities, estimated in 1900 at \$220,000,000. ⁹Pennsylvania anthracite shipments, 1820 to 1860. Entire coal product 1870 to 1901.

SOCIAL PROGRESS

ED STATES, 1800-1900.

U. S. BUREAU OF STATISTICS

1850.	1860.	1870.	1880.	1890.	1900.
2 980,959	3,025,600	3,025,600	3,025,600	3,025,600	3,025,600
23,191,876	31,443,321	38,558,311	50,155,783	62,622,250	76,303,387
7.78	10.39	12.14	16.57	20.70	25.22
7,135,780,000	16,159,616,000	30,068,518,000	42,642,000,000	65,037,091,000	³ 94,300,000,000
307.69	513.93	779.83	850.20	1,038.57	1,235.86
63,459,773.55	59,964,402.01	2,331,169,956.21	1,919,326,747.75	890,784,370.53	1,107,711,257.89
2.74	1.91	60.16	38.27	14.22	14.52
.....	13.85	17.60	19.41	22.82	26.93
.....	1,619	2,056	3,351	3,606
.....	433,803,311	461,557,515	623,791,365	608,588,045
43,431,130	149,277,504	549,874,358	819,106,973	58,845,279,505	84,582,450,081
251,354	693,870	1,630,846	2,335,582	1,524,844,506	2,449,547,885
3,967,343,580	7,980,493,060	8,944,857,719	12,180,501,538	4,258,893	6,107,083
.....	1,958,030,927	2,212,540,927	16,082,267,689	20,514,001,838
123,025	140,433	252,118	253,852	2,460,107,454	3,764,177,706
1,019,106,616	1,885,861,676	4,232,325,412	5,369,579,191	355,415	512,734
43,592,889	56,054,600	395,959,834	333,526,501	9,372,437,283	13,039,279,566
39,668,686	53,187,512	194,538,374	186,522,065	403,080,983	567,240,852
37,165,990	60,056,755	164,421,507	119,090,062	229,668,585	233,164,871
9,687,025	16,472,203	57,655,675	38,116,916	261,637,203	447,553,458
7,904,725	11,514,650	21,780,230	13,536,985	44,582,838	134,774,768
1,866,886	1,100,802	28,340,292	56,777,174	22,006,206	55,953,078
3,782,393	3,144,121	129,235,498	95,757,575	106,936,855	140,877,316
173,509,526	353,616,119	435,958,408	667,954,746	36,099,284	40,160,333
7.48	11.25	³ 11.96	12.51	789,310,409	849,941,184
144,375,726	333,576,057	392,771,768	835,638,658	12.35	10.88
6.23	10.61	⁵ 9.77	16.43	857,828,684	1,394,483,082
1,911,320	5,703,024	11,002,902	12,605,576	13.50	17.96
108,605,713	256,560,972	361,188,483	685,961,091	25,542,208	121,913,548
17,580,456	40,345,982	68,279,764	102,856,015	629,820,808	835,858,123
544,180,516	1,089,329,915	1,822,328,377	1,576,917,556	151,102,376	433,851,756
50,000,000	46,000,000	50,000,000	36,000,000	2,418,766,028	² 2,981,054,115
50,000	150,000	16,000,000	39,200,000	32,845,000	79,171,000
3,358,899	18,513,123	32,863,000	63,822,830	70,465,000	74,533,495
.....	¹⁰ 21,000,000	220,951,290	1,104,017,166	140,866,931	240,965,917
563,755	821,223	1,665,179	3,835,191	1,924,552,224	2,661,233,568
.....	68,750	1,247,335	9,202,703	13,789,242
650	7,200	12,600	27,000	4,277,071	10,188,329
52,516,959	60,264,913	162,000,000	232,500,000	115,966	270,588
100,485,944	173,104,924	235,884,700	498,549,868	276,000,000	288,636,621
592,071,104	838,792,740	1,094,255,000	1,717,434,543	399,262,000	522,229,505
2,333,718	4,861,292	3,114,592	5,761,252	1,489,970,000	2,105,102,516
110,526	190,040	46,800	92,802	7,311,322	9,436,416
1,026,602,269	1,767,686,338	958,558,523	1,822,061,114	136,503	149,229
9,021	30,626	52,922	93,262	2,471,799,853	3,100,583,188
.....	166,654	194,321
.....	520,439,082	584,695,935
.....	79,192,985,125	141,162,109,413
.....93	.75
279,255	214,798	276,953	157,410	294,122	393,790
1,585,711	2,546,237	1,516,800	1,352,810	946,695	826,694
1,949,743	2,807,631	2,729,707	2,715,224	3,477,802	4,338,145
.....	33.3	19.9	14.31	¹² 9.98
.....	3,676	3,546	4,735	10.907	10.774
.....	79,807,000	88,242,000	65,752,000	189,856,964	138,495,673
18,417	28,498	28,492	42,989	62,401	76,688
5,499,985	8,518,067	19,772,221	33,315,479	60,882,097	102,354,579
.....	9,157,646	29,215,509	55,878,762	63,167,783
2,526	4,051	¹⁰ 5,871	9,723	16,948	20,806
.....	37,832,566	59,942,972	91,836,484	136,031,838
6,981	4,778	13,333	13,947	26,292	26,499
310,004	150,237	¹⁸ 387,203	457,257	455,302	448,572

¹⁰In addition to this it is estimated that 10,000,000 barrels ran to waste in and prior to 1862 for want of a market. ¹¹1845. ¹²On wheat per bushel, all rail. ¹³For domestic consumers, ¹⁴1810 to 1860, inclusive. ¹⁵1828. ¹⁶1870 to 1900 from Rowell's Directory. ¹⁷1820 to 1850, total alien passengers arrived. ¹⁸Years ending June 30 to date.

SOCIAL PROGRESS

RECENT PROGRESS.

AREA, POPULATION, AND INDUSTRIES	1900	1901	1902	1903	1904
Area	3,025,600	3,025,600	3,025,600	3,025,600	3,025,600
Population	76,303,387	77,467,000	79,103,000	80,372,000	81,752,000
Per square mile	25.22	25.66	26.11	26.56	27.02
Wealth	94,300,000,000				
Per capita	2,435.86				
Public debt	107,711,257.89	1,044,739,119.	969,457,241.04	925,011,637.31	967,231,773.7
Per capita debt	14.52	13.45	12.27	11.51	11.81
Circulation per capita	26.94	27.98	28.93	29.42	30.80
National Banks	3,732	4,165	4,535	4,939	5,331
Capital	621,536,461	645,719,099	701,990,554	743,506,048	767,378,148
Clearings	84,582,450,081	114,819,792,086	116,021,618,003	114,068,837,569	
Deposits in Savings Banks	2,449,547,885	2,597,094,580	2,750,177,290	2,935,204,845	
Depositors	6,107,083	6,358,723	6,666,672	7,305,228	
Government receipts: ordinary	567,240,852	587,685,338	562,478,233	560,396,674	540,631,749
Customs	233,164,871	238,585,455	254,441,708	284,479,582	261,274,565
Expenditures: ordinary	447,553,458	477,624,374	442,082,813	477,542,658	557,755,832
War	134,774,768	144,515,597	112,272,216	118,619,520	115,035,411
Navy	55,953,078	50,516,978	67,803,128	82,618,034	102,956,102
Pensions	140,877,316	139,323,522	138,488,560	138,425,646	142,559,266
Interest on debt	40,160,333	32,342,979	29,108,045	25,541,573	24,646,490
Imports: total	849,941,184	823,172,165	903,320,948	1,025,719,237	991,090,978
Per capita	10.88	10.58	11.39	12.54	10.88
Exports: total	1,394,483,082	1,487,764,991	1,381,719,401	1,420,141,679	1,460,868,185
Per capita	17.96	18.81	17.16	17.32	17.85
Agricultural products	835,858,123	943,811,620	851,465,622	873,322,882	853,685,367
Manufactures	433,851,756	410,932,524	403,641,401	407,526,159	452,445,629
Product of Wool	288,636,621	302,502,328	316,341,032	287,450,000	
Wheat	522,229,505	748,460,218	670,063,008	637,821,335	
Corn	2,105,102,516	1,522,519,891	2,523,648,312	2,244,176,925	
Cotton	9,436,416	10,383,422	10,680,680	10,727,559	
Cane sugar	149,191	273,299	310,614	293,397	
Gold	79,171,000	78,566,700	80,000,000	74,425,340	
Silver	74,533,495	71,387,800	71,757,575	73,076,106	
Coal	240,789,309	261,874,835	269,874,816	319,068,229	
Petroleum	2,661,233,568	2,914,346,148	3,728,210,472	4,219,376,154	
Pig iron	13,789,242	15,878,354	17,821,307	18,009,252	
Steel	10,188,320	13,473,595	14,947,250	311,627	
Copper	270,588	268,782	294,423		
Railway, miles	194,334	198,768	203,132	311,627	
Passengers	584,695,935	600,485,790	655,130,236	208,855	
Freight carried 1 mile	141,162,109,413	148,959,303,492	156,624,166,024		
Freight rates per ton per mile75	.76	.76		
Vessels Built	393,790	483,489	468,833	436,152	
Engaged in foreign trade	826,694	889,129	882,555	888,776	
Domestic trade	4,338,145	4,635,089	4,915,347	5,198,569	
Failures	10,774	11,002	11,615	12,069	
Liabilities	138,495,673	113,092,376	117,476,769	155,444,185	
Post-offices	76,688	75,945	75,924	74,169	71,131
Newspapers and periodicals	20,806	20,879	20,156	20,485	
Public Schools: pupils	15,503,110	15,886,02	15,925,887		
Salaries paid	137,687,746	143,286,209	150,013,734		
Men in Colleges	72,159	75,472	78,133		
Women	26,764	27,879	29,258		
Patents issued	26,499	27,373	27,886	31,582	
Immigrants	448,572	487,981	648,743	857,046	815,361

1 Exclusive of Alaska and islands.

2 No official figures except in Census years.

3 True valuation of real and personal property.

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF THE UNITED STATES.

FROM THE U. S. SUMMARY OF COMMERCE AND FINANCE, SEPTEMBER, 1904.

IMPORTS FROM	Europe		North America		South America	
	Dollars	Per cent. of total	Dollars	Per cent. of total	Dollars	Per cent. of total
1870b	249,540,283	53.98	126,544,611	27.42	43,596,045	9.41
1880	370,821,782	55.52	130,077,225	19.47	82,126,922	12.30
1890	449,987,266	57.14	148,368,706	18.84	90,006,144	11.43
1900	440,567,314	51.84	130,035,221	15.30	93,666,774	11.02
1901	429,620,452	52.19	145,158,104	17.63	110,367,342	13.41
1902	475,161,941	52.60	151,076,524	16.72	119,785,756	13.26
1903	547,226,887	53.35	189,736,475	18.49	107,428,323	10.48
1904	499,284,635	50.37	197,507,220	19.93	120,306,589	12.14

IMPORTS FROM	Asia		Oceania, a		Africa	
	Dollars	Per cent. of total	Dollars	Per cent. of total	Dollars	Per cent. of total
1870b	31,413,378	6.78	1,423,212	0.31	c9,860,058	2.10
1880	67,008,793	10.02	d14,130,604	2.13	d3,789,420	.56
1890	67,506,833	8.57	28,356,568	3.60	3,321,477	.42
1900	139,842,330	16.45	34,611,108	4.07	11,218,437	1.32
1901	117,677,611	14.30	11,395,195	1.38	8,953,467	1.09
1902	129,682,651	14.36	14,166,461	1.57	13,447,615	1.49
1903	147,702,374	14.40	21,043,527	2.05	12,581,651	1.23
1904	144,409,692	14.57	20,310,943	2.05	9,271,894	.94

EXPORTS TO	Europe		North America		South America	
	Dollars	Per cent. of total	Dollars	Per cent. of total	Dollars	Per cent. of total
1870	420,184,014	79.35	68,962,006	13.03	21,651,459	4.09
1880	719,433,788	86.10	69,437,783	8.31	23,190,220	2.77
1890	683,736,397	79.74	94,100,410	10.98	38,752,648	4.52
1900	1,040,167,763	74.60	187,594,625	13.45	38,945,763	2.79
1901	1,136,504,605	76.39	196,534,460	13.21	44,400,195	2.98
1902	1,008,033,981	72.96	203,971,080	14.76	38,043,617	2.75
1903	1,029,256,657	72.48	215,482,769	15.16	41,137,872	2.90
1904	1,057,901,618	72.42	235,096,484	16.09	50,825,285	3.48

EXPORTS TO	Asia		Oceania		Africa	
	Dollars	Per cent. of total	Dollars	Per cent. of total	Dollars	Per cent. of total
1870	10,972,064	2.07	4,334,991	0.82	c3,414,768	0.64
1880	11,645,703	1.39	d6,846,698	.82	d5,084,466	.61
1890	19,696,820	2.30	16,460,269	1.92	4,613,702	.54
1900	64,913,807	4.66	43,391,275	3.11	19,469,849	1.79
1901	49,390,712	3.34	35,392,401	2.36	25,542,618	1.72
1902	63,944,077	4.63	34,258,041	2.48	33,468,605	2.42
1903	58,359,016	4.11	37,468,512	2.64	38,436,853	2.71
1904	60,136,316	4.12	32,791,852	2.24	24,116,630	1.65

a Hawaiian Islands not included in 1901, 1903, and 1904.

b From 1870 to 1878 "specie" is included in totals, but excluded in following years.

c Includes "All other countries."

d Includes "All other Spanish possessions."

e Includes "All other countries in Asia and Oceania."

SOCIAL PROGRESS

BANKING STATISTICS.

FROM THE REPORT OF THE U. S. COMPTROLLER OF THE CURRENCY, 1904.

WORLD'S BANKING POWER.

CLASSIFICATION	1890	1904	Increase	
			Amount	Per cent.
	<i>Millions of dollars</i>	<i>Millions of dollars</i>	<i>Millions of dollars</i>	
Banking power of the United States.	5,150.0	13,826.6	8,676.6	168.47
Banking power of foreign countries.	10,835.0	19,781.1	8,946.1	82.57
Banking power of the world.	15,985.0	33,607.7	17,622.7	110.25

CAPITAL, SHARES, ETC., OF NATIONAL BANKS.

DIVISIONS	Capital	Number of shares	Average par value	Number of shareholders	Number of women shareholders	Number of shares owned by women	Per cent of women shareholders	Per cent of shares owned by women
New England States.	\$117,797,320	1,357,824	\$86.75	70,58	30,262	327,533	0.43 -	0.24 +
Eastern States.	279,173,815	3,704,646	75.36	120,883	42,131	824,007	.43 +	.22 +
Southern States.	95,169,200	980,642	97.05	43,417	11,304	191,950	.26 +	.20 -
Middle West'n States.	203,429,100	2,039,291	99.75	62,544	16,515	412,526	.26 +	.20 +
Western States.	46,115,300	461,903	99.84	14,151	2,665	48,365	.19 -	.10 +
Pacific States.	28,274,800	283,748	99.65	7,056	1,645	53,561	.23 +	.19 -
Islands.	635,000	6,350	100.00	97	12	506	.12 +	.08 -
Total United States	770,594,535	8,834,404	\$87.23	318,735	104,534	1,858,448	.32 +	.21 +

Investigations relative to the number of shareholders and the average individual holdings have been made at various dates from 1876. In that year the number of shares of national bank stock was 6,505,930, the average number of shares held 31.25, and the average value of each holding \$2,427. In 1886 there were 7,116,894 shares, the average number of shares held 31.83, the average value of holdings \$2,438. In 1894 shares numbered 7,955,076, average number of shares 27.64, and the average value of holdings \$2,337. In 1902 the number of shares had increased to 8,001,433, the average number of shares held being 24.24, the average value of holdings \$2,072. The number of shares in 1903 was 8,617,517, the average number of shares held 27.36, with an average value of \$2,397. In July, 1904, the number of shares was 8,834,404, average number of shares held 27.72, and the average value of each shareholder's stock \$2,418.

The amount of exchanges of the principal clearing houses, and of those exceeding one billion dollars, are as follows:

New York.	\$59,672,796,804	Pittsburg.	1,986,720,497
Chicago.	8,808,093,268	San Francisco.	1,513,927,257
Boston.	6,419,272,150	Cincinnati.	1,196,854,400
Philadelphia.	5,491,236,568	Baltimore.	1,097,603,459
St. Louis.	2,682,218,323	Kansas City.	1,096,400,926

It is a notable fact that the number of banks which are members of the New York clearing house for the year 1904 is less than in any year since 1864, when the number was 49. The capital stock, however, has increased from the latter date, when it was \$68,586,763, to \$115,972,700.

SAVINGS BANKS.

STATE, ETC.	1902-3 (1,078 banks).			1903-4 (1,157 banks)			
	Number of depositors	Amount of deposits	Average to each depositor	Number of banks	Number of depositors	Amount of deposits	Average to each depositor
Maine.....	208,141	\$74,781,073	\$359.28	51	211,217	\$76,405,222	\$361.74
New Hampshire.....	155,309	63,919,183	411.56	59	159,956	66,140,710	413.50
Vermont.....	134,323	44,628,150	332.24	42	139,853	46,958,291	335.77
Massachusetts.....	1,660,314	586,937,084	353.40	187	1,723,015	608,415,410	353.11
Rhode Island.....	150,342	74,534,628	495.77	a31	132,556	64,841,318	489.16
Connecticut.....	444,407	203,522,226	457.96	90	461,387	212,177,974	459.87
Total New England States.....	2,753,336	1,048,322,344	380.74	460	2,827,984	1,074,938,925	380.10
New York.....	2,327,812	1,112,418,552	477.88	128	2,406,660	1,166,091,444	484.52
New Jersey.....	238,210	73,722,729	309.48	28	246,056	77,710,785	315.82
Pennsylvania.....	407,652	128,514,295	315.25	10	420,965	135,541,905	321.97
Delaware.....	b21,792	6,586,851	302.26	2	27,532	7,134,859	259.15
Maryland.....	155,299	62,253,508	400.86	17	c152,038	61,852,712	406.83
District of Columbia.....	11,758	1,654,715	140.73	2	13,203	2,144,470	162.42
Total Eastern State.....	3,162,523	1,385,150,650	437.99	188	3,266,454	1,450,476,175	444.05
Total Southern States.....	22,574	4,118,522	182.44	24	27,596	5,259,245	190.58
Ohio.....	108,854	52,306,123	480.51	3	92,685	48,764,076	526.13
Indiana.....	24,733	8,072,500	326.38	5	26,112	8,976,509	343.77
Illinois.....	a360,991	b119,721,739	331.64	a416,897	141,403,282	339.18
Wisconsin.....	4,290	810,533	188.93	2	4,703	365,551	184.04
Minnesota.....	69,763	18,624,665	266.97	12	76,432	19,238,652	251.71
Iowa.....	c240,063	86,602,757	360.75	375	c241,020	88,947,278	369.05
Total Middle States.....	808,694	286,138,317	353.83	397	857,849	308,195,348	359.25
California, total Pacific States.....	c288,101	211,475,012	734.03	88	a325,560	221,308,918	679.78
Total United States..	7,035,228	2,935,204,845	417.21	1,157	7,305,443	3,060,178,611	418.89

aPartially estimated.

bSavings deposits in State institutions having savings departments; abstract of reports included with State banks.

cEstimated.

SCHOOL SAVINGS BANKS.

School Savings Banks were begun in the United States in March, 1885. J. H. Thiry, of Long Island, was the originator of them and has been the general director ever since. Any school can start one. There is no association among the school banks. The only thing necessary is the permission of the School Board and the coöperation of some bank to receive weekly deposits. In most school banks, the roll-call of the children is made every Monday morning and the amount of each deposit and credit is checked off on a card. It teaches the children thrift, the value of pennies, and saves much careless and often worse than useless expenditure.

It is calculated that more than \$2,000,000 have been saved by American school children since the introduction of the system in 1885. On January 1, 1902, there were 1,479 schools in the United States where the system had been adopted, and of the 370,457 pupils enrolled, 166,578 were the depositors of \$1,309,611, of which \$869,878.48 had been withdrawn, leaving a balance of \$439,732.52 due to depositors on the first of January. See also Penny Provident Banks.

THE PENNY PROVIDENT BANK.

This was established in New York City in 1889 and has today some 60,000 depositors in all portions of the country. Its object is to encourage thrift. Cards are given to depositors, with the rules of the Fund on one side, and 36 blank squares on the other. Stamps are then sold to the depositor, to be attached to the squares. The stamps may be of 8 different values from 1 cent to 1 dollar. When the card is all filled the amount represented is paid to the depositor and he is urged though not required to open an account in some savings bank. A second card is then given. No interest is paid on these deposits, the object being to encourage the savings of small sums which can be deposited in a bank where interest is paid. In this way depositors in the Fund saved \$480,272.61 in ten years. The system has been used in schools with great success. See, also, School Savings Banks. Central office, Fourth Avenue and 22d Street, New York.

BUILDING AND LOAN ASSOCIATIONS.

Mr. H. F. Cellarius, Secretary of the United States League of Local Building and Loan Associations, in his annual report, states that the net increase in the aggregate assets is not as large as it might be on account of an apparent decrease of nearly \$10,000,000 in Ohio, resulting in the organization of a number of building associations into trust companies, yet a material advance has been made both in assets and membership. From the Secretary's report it is further learned that there are in the United States 5,308 local building and loan associations with a total membership of 1,566,700 and assets amounting to \$579,556,112, a net increase in assets for the year of \$2,328,098, the net growth in membership for the year being 35,993.

The following table exhibits the number of associations and total assets of such associations by States for the years 1903-4, together with the amounts showing increase or decrease over the figures of the prior year:

STATE	Number of associations	Total membership	Total assets	Increase in assets	Decrease in assets	Increase in membership
Pennsylvania.....	1,196	313,193	\$117,861,779	\$3,975,759		21,425
Ohio.....	731	301,460	301,221,442		\$9,729,815	5,386
New Jersey.....	353	112,539	51,460,688	2,980,311		5,915
Illinois.....	500	83,000	39,432,282		871,570	3,800
New York.....	300	90,429	33,342,475		543,267	1,809
Massachusetts.....	130	84,527	32,919,738	2,528,073		5,212
Indiana.....	379	97,213	30,035,098	16,691		8,942
California.....	146	53,376	19,863,852	1,663,985		6,084
Michigan.....	58	32,391	10,746,298	840,225		249
Missouri.....	134	9,996	7,771,790		456,475	8,734
Louisiana.....	39	18,150	6,609,242	109,242		150
Iowa.....	72	20,000	5,656,469			
Nebraska.....	59	20,446	5,343,429	585,136		1,026
Connecticut.....	16	8,035	3,851,539		293,658	3,730
Wisconsin.....	53	13,250	3,819,768	223,835		100
Kansas.....	40	11,259	3,417,114	297,596		733
Maine.....	35	8,444	2,932,206	77,580		189
Tennessee.....	21	3,417	2,321,663		17,994	296
New Hampshire.....	15	5,175	1,753,560	13,444		325
Minnesota.....	16	2,200	1,066,080			
Other States.....	1,015	278,200	98,129,000	929,000		4,700
Total.....	5,308	1,566,700	579,556,112	14,240,877	11,912,779	35,993

^aDecrease.

BUILDING IN TWENTY-EIGHT CITIES FOR 1904.

Building in 1904 was upon a highly satisfactory basis. Official reports to *Construction News* from twenty-eight of the principal cities of the country show that permits were taken out for the construction of 102,299 buildings, involving an expenditure of \$384,282,374, as against 88,788 buildings, at an estimated cost of \$326,940,038, in 1903, an increase of 13,511 buildings and \$57,342,336, or 18 per cent. The following table gives the figures in detail, three figures omitted from items of cost:

STATES.	1904		1903		Per cent.	
	Number	Cost	Number	Cost	Gain	Loss
New York	3,097	\$97,634	1,831	\$81,897	19
Chicago	7,231	45,067	6,133	33,965	31
Brooklyn	8,771	48,035	6,080	23,209	107
Philadelphia	8,398	28,967	7,469	32,509	10
Pittsburg	3,483	17,611	3,118	20,354	13
San Francisco	2,686	16,912	1,237	12,067	40
St. Louis	5,950	14,282	4,802	14,336	1
Los Angeles	7,064	13,409	6,395	13,046	2
Kansas City	4,501	9,204	3,442	7,713	19
Washington	3,852	8,519	3,578	14,609	41
Milwaukee	3,646	8,130	6,774	7,024	15
Seattle	7,438	7,868	6,914	6,495	20
Detroit	3,552	6,737	3,399	6,912	2
Minneapolis	4,466	6,701	4,149	6,710	1
Buffalo	2,650	6,588	1,988	5,810	14
Cincinnati	3,597	6,335	2,773	4,262	49
Cleveland	3,911	6,562	3,226	6,259	5
St. Paul	2,275	4,348	1,690	4,513	3
Denver	2,007	4,200	1,941	4,666	9
Atlanta	3,563	4,198	3,491	1,167	33
Indianapolis	3,135	3,952	2,494	3,010	31
Spokane	1,781	3,590	1,493	2,449	47
New Orleans	2,884	2,948	3
Louisville	2,025	2,335	1,782	2,463	6
Allegheny	835	2,259	734	2,196	3
Memphis	3,292	1,743	88
Omaha	861	2,199	540	904	143
Tacoma	1,524	1,911	1,315	1,690	14
Total	102,299	384,282	88,788	326,940	18

LIFE INSURANCE STATISTICS.

PREPARED BY F. L. HOFFMAN, INSURANCE STATISTICIAN, NEWARK, N. J.

YEARS ENDING DECEMBER 31	ORDINARY		INDUSTRIAL		TOTAL	
	Number of policies	Amount	Number of policies.	Amount	Number of policies	Amount
		<i>Dollars.</i>		<i>Dollars.</i>		<i>Dollars.</i>
1850	29,407	68,614,189
1860	60,000	180,000,000
1870	839,226	2,262,847,000
1880	679,690	1,564,183,532	236,674	20,533,469	916,364	1,584,717,001
1890	1,319,561	3,620,057,439	3,883,529	429,521,128	5,203,090	4,049,578,567
1900	3,176,051	7,093,152,380	11,219,296	1,468,986,366	14,395,347	8,562,138,746
1901	3,693,702	7,952,989,395	12,337,022	1,640,857,553	16,030,724	9,593,846,948
1902	4,160,088	8,701,587,912	13,448,124	1,806,890,864	17,608,212	10,508,478,776
1903	4,694,021	9,593,008,148	14,609,694	1,977,599,397	19,297,715	11,570,607,545

Income, \$553,639,900; payments to policy-holders, \$225,842,072; assets, \$2,265,221,193; liabilities, \$1,977,599,397; surplus, \$2,867,379,622.

SOCIAL PROGRESS

GROWTH OF MANUFACTURES IN THE U. S.

FROM THE CENSUS.

	1850.	1860.	1870.	1880.	1890.	1900.
Number of Establishments	123,025	140,433	252,148	253,852	355,415	512,339
Capital	533,245,351	1,009,855,715	2,118,208,769	2,790,272,606	6,525,156,486	9,835,086,909
Total Wages.	236,755,464	378,878,966	775,584,343	947,953,795	1,891,228,321	2,328,691,254
Cost Materials	555,123,822	1,031,605,092	2,488,427,242	3,396,823,549	5,162,044,076	7,348,144,755
Value of Products, including custom work & repairing. . .	1,019,106,616	1,885,861,676	4,232,325,442	5,369,579,191	9,372,437,283	13,014,287,498

ESTABLISHMENTS CLASSIFIED BY NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES—1900.

FROM THE CENSUS.

STATE OR TERRITORY.	ESTABLISHMENTS CLASSIFIED BY NUMBER OF PERSONS EMPLOYED NOT INCLUDING PROPRIETORS AND FIRM MEMBERS.							
	Hand Trades.			Manufactures.				
	Total establishments.	No. employees.	Over 20.	Total establishments.	No. employees.	Under 5	501 to 1,000	Over 1,000
Continental United States. . .	215,814	68,823	7,773	296,377	41,686	125,880	1,063	443
North Atlantic Division. . .	91,144	26,253	4,042	113,121	14,622	44,352	613	270
South Atlantic Division. . .	14,684	4,927	508	32,495	5,062	13,319	85	34
North Central Division. . .	82,303	27,376	2,430	100,164	15,736	45,700	275	122
South Central Division. . . .	15,325	6,076	382	35,717	4,269	16,496	44	8
Western Division.	12,358	4,191	411	14,880	1,997	6,013	46	9

STATE OR TERRITORY.	PER CENT DISTRIBUT'N WAGE-EARNERS IN						Horse-power.	Per cent. of Increase.	
	1900.			1890.				1900.	1890 to 1900.
	Men at least 16 years of age.	Women at least 16 years of age.	Children, under 16 years of age.	Men at least 16 years of age.	Women at least 15 years of age.	Children.			
Continental United States.	77.4	19.4	3.2	78.3	18.9	2.8	11,298,119	89.8	74.6
North Atlantic division.	73.0	24.1	2.9	73.2	24.1	2.7	5,253,826	69.3	71.5
South Atlantic division.	74.2	18.3	7.5	75.6	18.3	6.1	1,054,956	125.1	59.3
North Central division.	83.4	14.3	2.3	86.2	11.6	2.2	3,285,686	88.5	69.5
South Central division.	86.5	9.6	3.9	85.2	11.0	3.8	1,283,643	190.3	110.0
Western division.	86.1	12.2	1.7	86.8	11.2	2.0	420,008	114.2	188.6

The sun's heat which falls on the surface of Manhattan Island at noon is sufficient, we are told, to drive all the steam engines of the world. The force of atomic motion is alike irresistible and immeasurable. Our present knowledge of electricity assures us of its boundless possibilities; and nature is now whispering into the ear of science some of her secrets, which suggest the possibility of giving to material civilization, within a few years, an impetus greater even than that resulting from the application of steam.

COMPARATIVE SUMMARY OF GROUPS OF INDUSTRIES, 1900, 1890 AND 1880.

ALL FINANCIAL VALUES IN DOLLARS.	Year	Number of establishments	Capital.	WAGE-EARNERS		Cost of materials used.	Value of products, including custom work and repairing.
				Average number.	Total wages.		
Total.....	1900	512,191	9,813,834,390	5,306,143	2,320,938,168	7,343,627,875	13,000,149,159
	1890	355,405	6,525,050,759	4,251,535	1,891,209,696	5,162,013,878	9,372,378,843
	1880	253,852	2,790,272,606	2,732,595	947,953,795	3,396,823,549	5,369,579,191
Food and kindred products.....	1900	61,266	937,686,610	311,717	128,667,428	1,837,668,260	2,273,880,874
	1890	41,296	507,678,328	249,321	90,373,450	1,318,963,830	1,636,197,191
	1880	38,427	318,800,209	174,410	51,840,649	1,002,453,074	1,171,165,325
Textiles.....	1900	30,048	1,366,604,058	1,029,910	341,734,399	895,984,796	1,637,484,484
	1890	16,847	1,008,050,268	824,138	278,167,769	705,004,909	1,261,672,504
	1880	14,137	594,922,734	710,493	198,456,573	569,610,545	971,274,539
Iron and steel and their products..	1900	13,896	1,528,979,076	733,968	381,875,499	987,198,370	1,793,490,908
	1890	11,169	997,872,438	531,823	285,351,714	617,554,226	1,144,056,537
	1880	8,823	487,870,983	379,491	160,865,294	369,142,796	659,411,131
Lumber and its re-manufactures..	1900	47,054	945,934,565	546,872	212,124,780	561,410,619	1,030,695,350
	1890	35,576	844,312,745	547,698	201,540,081	462,628,152	877,896,480
	1880	42,336	313,615,838	319,661	96,267,031	282,809,519	489,368,139
Leather and its finished products.....	1900	16,989	343,600,513	238,202	99,759,883	395,551,232	583,731,046
	1890	12,918	246,795,713	212,727	98,432,593	294,446,011	467,556,030
	1880	16,208	139,850,821	181,772	70,539,442	293,834,529	425,901,191
Paper and printing.....	1900	26,747	557,610,887	297,551	140,092,453	214,158,423	606,317,768
	1890	20,160	344,003,723	225,645	117,611,864	149,597,579	445,587,430
	1880	6,044	135,367,497	119,388	53,371,147	91,792,937	198,312,617
Liquors and beverages.....	1900	7,861	534,101,049	63,072	36,946,557	122,218,073	425,504,167
	1890	4,219	310,002,635	48,358	29,140,916	109,830,410	341,155,361
	1880	3,880	134,997,731	38,747	17,148,760	102,360,561	167,306,052
Chemicals and allied products.	1900	5,443	498,282,219	101,489	43,850,282	356,151,784	552,797,877
	1890	5,642	322,543,674	76,535	33,872,540	239,915,794	380,056,497
	1880	2,914	113,887,551	45,443	17,271,308	112,763,633	170,076,312
Clay, glass and stone products.	1900	14,809	350,902,367	244,987	109,022,582	94,615,281	293,564,235
	1890	11,711	217,386,297	221,367	90,541,771	68,990,146	229,806,003
	1880	10,418	83,142,840	132,615	39,929,100	40,064,200	108,010,252
Metals and metal products, other than iron and steel.	1900	16,305	410,646,057	190,757	96,749,051	496,979,368	748,795,464
	1890	10,019	204,285,820	123,239	64,055,644	179,169,940	316,908,150
	1880	9,801	87,580,051	85,278	38,907,126	99,597,745	173,273,848
Tobacco.....	1900	15,252	124,089,871	142,277	49,852,484	107,182,656	283,076,546
	1890	11,643	96,094,753	122,775	44,550,735	92,304,317	211,746,623
	1880	7,674	39,995,292	87,587	25,054,457	65,384,407	118,670,166
Vehicles for land transportation.	1900	10,112	396,671,441	316,157	164,559,022	268,211,545	508,524,510
	1890	10,175	248,224,770	221,125	118,212,379	174,624,639	344,476,243
	1880	4,472	55,317,091	68,677	27,764,713	56,128,359	104,968,728
Shipbuilding.....	1900	1,116	77,362,701	46,781	24,839,163	33,486,772	74,578,158
	1890	1,010	53,393,074	24,811	14,833,937	16,925,109	40,342,115
	1880	2,188	20,979,874	21,345	12,713,813	19,736,358	36,800,327
Miscellaneous industries.....	1900	29,479	1,348,920,721	483,273	202,746,162	490,073,705	1,004,092,294
	1890	19,304	768,870,920	302,649	136,643,444	300,231,851	645,574,453
	1880	11,149	180,245,046	188,774	66,083,451	171,370,479	311,427,194
Hand trades.....	1900	215,814	392,442,255	559,130	288,118,421	482,736,991	1,183,615,478
	1890	143,716	355,535,601	519,324	287,880,819	431,826,965	1,009,347,226
	1880	75,381	83,699,048	178,914	71,740,931	119,774,407	263,613,370

SOCIAL PROGRESS

SUMMARIES, 1900.¹

CLASS.	Number of establishments.	Capital.	Proprietors and firm members.	Wage-earners.	Value of products, including custom work and repairing.
				Average number.	
Total.....	640,056	\$9,858,205,501	708,623	5,370,814	\$13,058,562,917
Hand trades.....	215,814	392,442,255	242,154	559,130	1,183,615,478
Governmental establishments.....	138				22,010,391
Educational, eleemosynary, and penal institutions.....	381				6,640,692
Establishments with a product of less than \$500.....	127,346	44,371,111	136,054	64,671	29,762,675
All other establishments.....	296,377	9,421,392,135	330,415	4,747,013	11,816,533,681

¹ Statistics for governmental establishments, educational, eleemosynary and penal institutions, and establishments with a product of less than \$500 are included in this table, but not in the following:

COMPARISON.

	1900.	PER CENT. OF INCREASE.				
		1890 to 1900.	1880 to 1890.	1870 to 1880.	1860 to 1870.	1850 to 1860.
Number of establishments.....	512,276	44.1	40.0	0.7	79.6	14.1
Capital ¹	\$9,831,486,500	50.7	133.8	31.7	109.8	89.4
Salaried officials, clerks, etc., number ²	397,092	713.9				
Salaries ²	\$404,112,794	3.1				
Wage-earners, average number ³	5,314,539	25.0	55.6	33.0	56.6	37.0
Total wages ³	\$2,327,295,545	23.1	99.5	22.2	104.7	60.0
Men, at least 16 years of age.....	4,114,348	23.7	64.8	25.0	55.3	42.3
Wages.....	\$2,019,954,204	21.7				
Women, at least 16 years of age.....	1,031,608	28.4	51.2	64.2	19.5	19.9
Wages.....	\$281,679,649	30.8				
Children, under 16 years.....	168,583	39.5	433.6	58.7		
Wages.....	\$25,661,692	54.3				
Miscellaneous expenses ⁴	\$1,027,865,277	62.8				
Cost of materials used ⁵	\$7,346,358,979	42.3	52.0	36.5	141.2	85.8
Value of products, including custom work and repairing ⁶	\$13,010,036,514	38.8	74.5	26.9	124.4	85.1

Note.—Exact comparisons between censuses are difficult and sometimes impossible on account of changes which have taken place from census to census in the form of inquiries and in the methods of compilation. Comparisons between the censuses of 1890 and 1900 are more exact than has ever before been the case; but even between these two censuses there are certain important differences in the forms of inquiry, or the methods of handling the statistics in compilation, to which careful attention should be paid.

¹ *Capital.*—It cannot be assumed that any true comparability exists between the statistics on this subject prior to 1890. The form of this inquiry at the census of 1890 and 1900 was so similar that comparison may be safely made.

² *Salaries of Officials.*—No comparison of the statistics of the number and salaries of salaried officials of any character can be made between the reports of any censuses. Not until the census of 1890 did the census begin to differentiate sharply between salaried officials, *i. e.*, employees engaged at a fixed compensation per annum, and the wage-earning class.

³ *Employees and Wages.*—At the censuses of 1850 and 1860 the inquiries regarding employees and wages called for "the average number of hands employed: male, female," "the average monthly cost of male labor," and "the average monthly cost of female labor." At the census of 1870 the average number of hands employed was called for, divided between "males above 16 years, females above 15 years, and children and youth," and the "total amount paid in wages during the year" was first called for. The inquiries at the census of 1880 were like those of 1870, though more extended for some of the selected industries.

At the census of 1890 the average number of persons employed during the entire year was called for, and also the average number employed at stated weekly rates of pay, and the average number was computed for the actual time the establishments were reported as being in operation. At the census of 1900 the greatest and least numbers of employees were reported, and also the average number employed during each month of the year. The average number of wage-earners (men, women and children) employed during the entire year was computed in the Census Office

CITY AND COUNTRY.

COMPARATIVE SUMMARY, 100 PRINCIPAL CITIES COMPARED WITH UNITED STATES OUTSIDE THESE CITIES: 1900, 1890, AND 1880.

	1900	PER CENT. OF TOTAL.			PER CENT. OF INCREASE.	
		1900.	1890.	1880.	1890 to 1900.	1880 to 1890.
Number of establishments:						
100 cities.....	186,160	36.3	47.2	30.7	10.9	115.1
Outside these cities.....	326,031	63.7	52.8	69.3	73.8	6.7
Capital:						
100 cities.....	\$5,001,154,556	51.0	54.0	49.6	41.9	154.5
Outside these cities.....	\$4,812,679,834	49.0	46.0	50.4	60.4	113.5
Wage-earners, average number:						
100 cities.....	2,638,834	49.7	54.3	52.4	14.2	61.4
Outside these cities.....	2,667,309	50.3	45.7	47.6	37.4	49.2
Total wages:						
100 cities.....	\$1,231,745,031	53.1	60.3	58.6	8.0	105.1
Outside these cities.....	\$1,089,193,137	46.9	39.7	41.4	45.0	91.5
Cost of materials used:						
100 cities.....	\$3,701,237,634	50.4	58.0	56.3	23.7	56.6
Outside these cities.....	\$3,642,390,241	49.6	42.0	43.7	67.9	46.0
Value of products:						
100 cities.....	\$6,844,170,314	52.6	60.0	56.2	21.8	86.2
Outside these cities.....	\$6,155,978,845	47.4	40.0	43.8	64.1	59.5
Population:						
100 cities.....	17,233,345	22.7	20.9	18.2	31.2	43.9
Outside these cities.....	58,761,230	77.3	79.1	81.8	18.0	20.6

For Europe we have the following:

FROM MULHALL'S INDUSTRIES AND WEALTH OF NATIONS, 1896.

	IN MILLIONS OF DOLLARS.				Total per Inhabitant.
	Agriculture.	Manu- factures.	Mining etc.	Trans- portation.	
United Kingdom.....	1,150	4,380	435	835	\$170
France.....	2,080	2,980	185	610	150
Germany.....	2,085	3,450	240	665	120
Russia.....	2,700	1,900	270	495	45
Austria.....	1,595	1,640	140	345	90
Italy.....	1,020	950	40	155	70
Spain.....	675	605	40	160	85
Portugal.....	130	145	10	20	60
Sweden.....	185	225	65	45	105
Norway.....	45	85	30	35	95
Denmark.....	175	95	5	25	135
Holland.....	180	245	5	40	100
Belgium.....	220	590	55	70	150
Switzerland.....	100	205	5	30	115
Greece.....	70	50	5	15	65
Danube States.....	415	280	25	50	70
Europe.....	12,825	17,825	1,545	3,595	100
United States.....	4,065	9,760	1,120	1,635	235
Canada.....	285	490	130	115	200
Australia.....	350	425	100	115	235

by using 12, the number of calendar months, as a divisor into the total of the average number # reported for each month.

Furthermore, the schedules for 1890 included in the wage-earning class "overseers, and foremen or superintendents (not general superintendents or managers)," while the census of 1900 separates from the wage-earning class such salaried employees as general superintendents, clerks and salesmen.

⁴ *Miscellaneous Expenses.*—This item was not shown at any census prior to that of 1890.

Comparison between the totals reported can safely be made between the last two censuses.

⁵ *Materials.*—The same statement is true regarding the materials used in manufactures.

⁶ *Products.*—These statistics are comparable beginning with the census of 1870.

⁷ *Decrease.*

The chief countries exporting manufactures at the present time are the United Kingdom, Germany, France, and the United States. These four countries supply about three-fourths of the manufactures entering the international markets of the world, the total exports of manufactures from these countries, being, in round terms 3 billion dollars and the total value of manufactures entering the world's international markets being about 4 billion dollars. A study, however, of the relative growth of manufacture and of exportations of manufactures in these four countries indicates that the United States is making more rapid gains than any other of the group.

EXPORTS OF DOMESTIC MANUFACTURES.

(From the U. S. Bulletin of Commerce and Finance, September, 1904.)

COUNTRIES	1880	1903	INCREASE	
			Total	Per cent.
	<i>Dollars</i>	<i>Dollars</i>	<i>Dollars</i>	
United Kingdom.....	964,540,000	1,142,595,000	178,055,000	18.46
United States.....	102,856,015	4452,445,629	349,589,614	339.85
Germany.....	460,279,000	780,926,000	320,647,000	69.66
France.....	339,186,000	405,794,000	66,608,000	19.64

*a*Fiscal year 1904.

Studies of production of manufactures as a whole are extremely difficult because no country other than the United States makes any measurement, by census or otherwise, of the value of its manufactures as a whole. Estimates have been made by Mulhall and other statisticians of the value of the manufactures produced in the principal countries of the world at various dates. These estimates of the value of manufactures produced in the United Kingdom, Germany, France, and the United States are, for the years 1888 and 1900, respectively, as follows:

ESTIMATED VALUE OF MANUFACTURES IN THE UNITED KINGDOM, GERMANY, FRANCE, AND THE UNITED STATES, 1888 AND 1900.

[Figures of 1888 are Mulhall's estimates, those of 1900 for European countries are estimates of W. J. Clark, those of 1900 for United States are census figures of gross production.]

COUNTRIES	1888	1900	INCREASE	
			Amount	Per cent.
	<i>Dollars</i>	<i>Dollars</i>	<i>Dollars</i>	
United Kingdom.....	3,990,000,000	5,000,000,000	1,010,000,000	25
Germany.....	2,837,000,000	4,600,000,000	1,763,000,000	62
France.....	2,360,000,000	3,450,000,000	1,090,000,000	46
Total.....	9,187,000,000	13,030,000,000	3,863,000,000	42
United States.....	7,022,000,000	13,004,000,000	5,982,000,000	85

These figures are in all cases estimates, except those of the census of 1900. If approximately accurate, the comparison of conditions in the United States and the European countries at the two periods named would indicate that the increase in the production of manufactures in the United States is much greater than that of the European countries in question.

COAL AND IRON PRODUCTS. PRINCIPAL COUNTRIES, 1891 AND 1901.

IN THOUSAND METRIC TONS.

(Compiled from the Statistical Year Book of the German Empire. 1903.)

COAL ¹	Germany	Austria-Hungary ²	Russia ³	Italy	Spain	France	Belgium ⁴	Netherlands
1891.....	94,253	28,900	6,233	289	1,300	26,025	19,676	100
1901.....	153,019	41,203	16,316 ⁴	426	2,748	32,305	22,074	313
PIG IRON								
1891.....	4,641	922	1,005	12	149	1,897	684
1901.....	7,880	1,522	2,762	16	136	2,427	1,019

COAL ¹	Switzerland	United Kingdom	Canada	United States	British India	Japan	British Africa	Australia Tasmania	New Zealand
1891.....	198	188,456	3,246	152,914	2,366	3,169	114	4,448	680
1901.....	272	219,037	5,612	266,064	6,742	7,429	1,797	7,000	1,247
PIG IRON									
1891.....		7,525		8,412					
1901.....		7,886	325	18,106					

¹Including coke. ²Including Bosnia and Herzegovina. ³Including Asiatic provinces. ⁴Not including Asiatic provinces.

COAL PRODUCTION IN PRINCIPAL COUNTRIES.

(From the Board of Trade Journal, London, September 8, 1904.)

COUNTRY	1901	1902	1903 ^a
	<i>Tons</i>	<i>Tons</i>	<i>Tons</i>
United Kingdom.....	b219,047,000	b227,095,000	bd230,334,000
Germany.....	b108,539,000	b107,474,000	bd116,638,000
France.....	c 31,634,000	c 29,365,000	c 34,318,000
Belgium.....	c 22,213,000	c 22,877,000	c 23,912,000
United States.....	b261,874,000	b269,277,000	bd320,983,000

^aProvisional figures.
^bTons of 2,240 pounds.

^cMetric tons of 2,204 pounds.
^dDefinitive figures.

The production of coal in 1903 in each of these five countries was greater than in any previous year. The production of the United States exceeds that of the United Kingdom, but the production of Germany represents only about a half, and that of France and Belgium together about a quarter of the production of this country.

The total known coal production of the world (exclusive of brown coal or lignite), is now about 790,000,000 tons (of 2,240 pounds) per annum, of which the United Kingdom produces rather less, and the United States rather more, than a third.

As compared with its population, the production of coal in the United Kingdom still surpasses that in the United States. It amounts to nearly 5½ tons per head, while in the United States it is still slightly less than 4 tons per head. In Belgium it amounts to about 3½ tons per head, in Germany to about 2 tons per head, and in France to under a ton per head.

OTHER METALS.

No other country approaches the United States in the richness and variety of its mineral wealth. As is now generally known, the United States leads the world in all the metals except zinc and tin. Of the precious metals, she produces about one-half more than any other country. Australia and South Africa approach her in gold but have little silver. Mexico approaches her in silver but has little gold. The United States leads in both. The output of gold has more than doubled in the past ten years; and the director of the mint states that in the Cripple Creek district the "reserves (of gold) in sight are enormous."

The clay which we deem so base, yielded us, in 1900, the tidy sum of \$78,704,678, which was \$645,000 more than all our gold mines did for us. From the various kinds of clay were manufactured, bricks, drain tiles, chinaware, furnace linings, domestic pottery, ornamental pottery, and various utensils.

In precious stones, the United States is not rich. Nearly all gems are occasionally found, but turquoise and pearls are the only ones produced in considerable quantities. The value of our entire output of precious stones, in 1901, was only two hundred and eighty-nine thousand dollars.

AGRICULTURAL STATISTICS.

NUMBER AND ACREAGE OF FARMS AND VALUE.

(From the Census.)

STATE OR TERRITORY	NUMBER OF FARMS		NUMBER OF ACRES IN FARMS, JUNE 1, 1900			Average number of acres per farm	Per cent. of farm land improved	Per cent. of total land surface improved
	Total	With buildings	Total	Improved	Unimproved			
N. Atlantic div.	677,506	666,832	65,409,089	38,920,614	26,488,475	96.5	59.5	37.5
S. Atlantic div.	962,225	931,320	104,297,506	46,100,226	58,197,280	108.4	44.2	26.8
N. Central div.	2,196,567	2,120,726	317,349,474	222,314,099	95,035,375	144.5	70.1	46.1
S. Central div.	1,658,166	1,586,829	257,738,845	80,007,867	177,730,978	155.4	31.0	20.5
Western div...	242,908	229,904	93,796,860	27,155,681	66,641,179	386.1	29.0	3.6

NUMBER AND ACREAGE OF FARMS, AND NUMBER OF ACRES IMPROVED AND UNIMPROVED: 1850 TO 1900.

YEAR	Number of farms	Value, all farm property	Farm land, with improvements, including buildings	Average number of acres to a farm	PER CENT OF FARM LAND.	
					Im- proved	Unim- proved
1900.....	5,737,372	\$20,439,901,164	² \$16,614,647,491	146.2	49.4	50.6
1890 ¹	4,564,641	16,082,267,689	13,279,252,649	136.5	57.4	42.6
1880 ¹	4,008,907	12,180,501,538	10,197,096,776	133.7	53.1	46.9
1870 ¹	2,659,985	³ 11,124,958,747	9,262,803,861	153.3	46.3	53.7
1860.....	2,044,077	7,980,493,063	6,645,045,007	199.2	40.1	59.9
1850.....	1,449,073	3,967,343,580	3,271,575,426	202.6	38.5	61.5

¹Not including farms of less than 3 acres which reported the sale of less than \$500 worth of products in the census year.

²Value of land, with improvements, except buildings, \$13,058,007,995; value of buildings, \$3,556,639,496. The Twelfth Census was the first to collect separate statistics of buildings on farms.

³Values for 1870 were reported in depreciated currency. To reduce to specie basis of other years they must be diminished one-fifth.

PER CENT. OF FARMS OF SPECIFIED ACREAGE: 1900, 1890, AND 1880.

(Twelfth Census, Vol. V, pages xlv and 690.)

YEAR	Under 3 acres	3 and under 10 acres	10 and under 20 acres	20 and under 50 acres	50 and under 100 acres	100 and under 500 acres	500 and under 1,000 acres	1,000 acres and over
1900.....	10.7	4.0	7.1	21.9	23.8	39.9	1.8	0.8
1890.....	(2)	(2)	5.8	19.8	24.6	44.0	1.8	0.7
1880.....	30.1	3.4	6.3	19.5	25.8	42.3	1.9	0.7

¹Including all farms of less than 3 acres that, continuously, require the labor of one individual

²Not separately reported, but included with farms under 10 acres, numbering 150,194, or 3.3 per cent. of all farms.

³Including only those that reported the sale of products of \$500 or over in the census year.

NUMBER OF FARMS OF SPECIFIED TENURE: 1900, 1890, AND 1880.

YEAR	Number of farms	NUMBER OF FARMS OPERATED BY—			PER CENT. OF FARMS OPERATED BY—		
		Owners ¹	Cash tenants	Share tenants	Owners ¹	Cash tenants	Share tenants
1900.....	5,737,372	3,712,408	751,665	1,273,299	64.7	13.1	22.2
1890 ²	4,564,641	3,269,728	454,659	840,254	71.6	10.0	18.4
1880 ²	4,008,907	2,984,306	322,357	702,244	74.5	8.0	17.5

¹Includes farms operated by owners, part owners, owners and tenants, and managers.

²Not including farms with an area of less than 3 acres, which reported the sale of less than \$500 worth of products in the census year.

PRODUCTION OF CERTAIN FARM CROPS: 1850 TO 1900.

(Twelfth Census.)

CROP	Unit of measure.	1900	1890	1880	1870	1860	1850
Corn....	Bushel	2,666,324,370	2,122,327,547	1,754,591,676	760,944,549	838,792,742	592,071,104
Wheat....	do	658,534,252	468,373,968	459,483,137	287,745,626	173,104,924	100,485,943
Oats....	do	943,389,375	809,250,666	407,858,999	282,107,157	172,643,185	146,584,179
Barley....	do	119,634,877	78,332,976	43,997,495	29,761,305	15,825,898	5,167,015
Rye....	do	25,568,625	28,421,398	19,831,595	16,918,795	21,101,380	14,188,813
B'kwheat....	do	11,233,515	12,110,349	11,817,327	9,821,721	17,571,818	8,956,912
Rice....	Pound	250,280,227	128,590,934	110,131,373	73,635,021	187,167,032	215,313,497
Flaxseed..	Bushel..	19,979,492	10,250,410	7,170,951	1,730,444	566,867	562,312
Hay&f'ge	Ton....	179,251,562	66,831,480	35,150,711	27,316,048	19,083,896	13,838,642
Cotton....	Bale ² ..	9,534,707	7,472,511	5,755,359	3,011,996	5,387,052	2,469,093
Tobacco..	Pound..	868,112,865	488,256,646	472,661,157	262,735,341	434,209,461	199,752,655
Hemp....	do	11,750,630	23,022,000	10,050,000	25,492,000	148,986,000	69,742,000
Beans....	Bushel..	5,064,490	3,163,554	3,075,050	3,746,027	3,506,1995	3,219,901
Peas....	do	9,440,210	6,215,349	6,514,977	(3)	(3)	(3)
Potatoes..	do	273,318,167	217,546,362	169,458,539	143,337,473	111,099,867	65,797,896
Sw. potat.	do	42,517,412	43,950,261	33,378,693	21,709,824	42,095,026	38,268,148

¹Exclusive of cornstalks. ²Commercial bale. ³Beans and peas given as one crop.

Immense as is our output, it will doubtless be doubled when our farming is generally brought up to the high standard of scientific agriculture. This could be done without any increase of acreage. But the acreage under cultivation may be materially increased by irrigation, by the reclamation of bad lands, and by the more thrifty use of farm lands now allowed to run to waste.

A WONDERFUL DISCOVERY.

INOCULATING THE GROUND.

The conditions of civilized life make constant demands on the world's supply of nitrogen. Every year's crops take vast quantities of nitrogen from the soil, which, instead of being returned to earth in fertilizers, are, by our wasteful methods of sewerage, ultimately swept out to sea, where they are useless to man. This constant loss has led some to fear a "nitrogen famine" within the next fifty years. "Worn out" farms in the older parts of the United States testify to the robbery of the soil which has long taken place. To restore to these depleted soils the nitrates necessary to make them productive would require vast sums of money; but recent discoveries make it possible to re-fertilize, practically without cost, these exhausted farms, and to render lands heretofore barren richly productive.

The air, being about three-quarters nitrogen, would seem to be the great source of plant food; but though the farmer's crops are surrounded by an ocean of nitrogen they are unable to appropriate it from the air. It is found that this service is rendered by certain nitrogen-fixing bacteria, which absorb free nitrogen from the air and convert it into forms suited to the needs of plant life.

It has long been known that certain plants exhaust the ground while others enrich it; hence the old rule of rotation of crops. Wheat, corn and other cereals draw their nitrates from the soil and hence exhaust it, while clover, peas, beans and other legumes, by the aid of nitrogen-fixing bacteria, draw their nitrogen from the air; and as these bacteria prepare more nitrogenous plant food than the legumes use, the soil is enriched.

These bacteria form colonies on the roots of leguminous plants, from the size of a pin head to that of a potato; and the plant flourishes according to the size of these colonies. If, however, there are none of these nitrogen-fixing bacteria in the soil, it is useless to plant legumes for the purpose of fertilizing it.

A celebrated German, Professor Nobbe of Tharandt, discovered that by inoculating barren soil with these bacteria, leguminous plants could be made to flourish where otherwise the attempt would be hopeless. He therefore isolated these nitrogen-fixing bacteria, cultivated them and placed them on the market. Some experiments proved highly successful, but it was found that the bacteria would not bear transportation; results were highly uncertain, and the effort was abandoned.

At this point Prof. George T. Moore, in charge of the Laboratory of Plant Physiology of the United States Department of Agriculture, came to the rescue of the valuable discovery made by Professor Nobbe. By following a different method of feeding he developed a permanent type of bacteria having from five to ten times the practical working power of the original type. He ingeniously devised methods by which these bacteria could be dried, transported to the ends of the earth, revived, multiplied and used successfully by any intelligent farmer for the inoculation of his land.

Illustrative of the results of this treatment of the soil, a farmer declared that he secured from a formerly worthless field five times as much alfalfa as he had been getting from his best land. Sometimes the harvest is increased nearly twenty fold.

Not only are the leguminous products thus wonderfully multiplied, but the surplus of nitrogen left in the soil is so large that other crops following the next year, are greatly benefited. Thus experiments have shown an increase of 40 per cent. of cotton, 46 per cent. of wheat, 50 per cent. of potatoes, 300 per cent. of oats, and 400 per cent. of rye, the increased value of these crops per acre varying from \$6.50 to \$44.64.

These cultures, which might be called yeast-cakes for raising crops are so easily produced that enough to inoculate an acre costs less than one cent, and are furnished free by the Government. Thus the farmer gets cartloads of fertilizer for the asking, and carries it home from the postoffice in his pocket.

But the most delightful part of the story is yet to be told. To prevent his discovery being commercialized, Dr. Moore patented it and then made it a present to the American people.

It is too early as yet to estimate how much Professor Moore has increased the food producing power of the world, but he has apparently added to its area a continent or more. If the ghost of Malthus still walks in some quarters, this discovery should lay it for at least some centuries to come. And if he who "makes two blades of grass grow where only one grew before" deserves the gratitude of his fellows, Professor Moore is entitled to be considered one of the great benefactors of the race.

(See "Bacteria and the Nitrogen Problem," by Gorge T. Moore; also article in *The Century* for October, 1904, entitled, "Inoculating the Ground.")

WHEAT CROPS OF THE WORLD.

(From the U. S. Bulletin of Commerce and Finance, September, 1904.)

COUNTRIES	1899	1900	1901	1902	1903
United States.....	1,000 bush. 547,304	1,000 bush. 522,230	1,000 bush. 748,460	1,000 bush. 670,063	1,000 bush. 637,822
Russia in Europe.....	393,876	396,022	401,772	560,826	551,942
Russia in Asia.....	93,411	62,131	61,149	81,693	104,665
Total Russia.....	487,287	458,153	462,921	642,519	656,607
Austria-Hungary.....	202,508	194,916	180,656	234,856	225,592
Roumania.....	26,064	56,663	72,386	76,220	73,700
Argentina.....	104,982	101,655	74,753	56,380	100,636
Canada.....	59,960	51,701	90,212	98,654	82,965
India.....	255,260	200,000	200,110	227,380	294,725
All other countries.....	1,100,520	1,042,653	1,031,835	1,097,638	1,123,806
Total.....	2,783,885	2,627,971	2,929,333	3,103,710	3,195,853
Per cent. from U. S.....	19.66	19.87	24.56	21.59	19.96
Per cent. from Russia.....	13.91	18.43	15.80	20.70	20.55

DECREASING WHEAT EXPORTS FOR THE U. S.¹

Of the 450 to 500 million bushels of wheat and flour entering the world's commerce, the share of the United States has fallen from over 200 million bushels of the previous two years to 120 million, or from 40 to 45 per cent. of the total in those years to 25 per cent., while Russia's share of the total has increased from about 20 per cent. in the preceding four years to over 30 per cent. for the year 1903. Considerable growth of exports is also shown by India, while a normal crop enabled the Argentine farmer to ship out of the country during the single year 1903 a quantity larger than that exported during the preceding two years.

The gradual shifting of the sources of supply is illustrated by the following table, showing the imports by countries for the United Kingdom and Germany, these two nations being the principal consumers of foreign wheat, requiring about 275 million bushels out of the 450 to 500 million bushels annually imported into all countries:

¹NOTE.—Mark the distinction between exports in this statement and crops in the above table.

SOCIAL PROGRESS

EXPORTS OF WHEAT AND WHEAT FLOUR COMBINED FROM THE FOLLOWING COUNTRIES DURING THE YEARS 1899-1904.

COUNTRIES	1899	1900	1901	1902	1903	1904
	1,000 bush.	1,000 bush.	1,000 bush.	1,000 bush.	1,000 bush.	1,000 bush.
United States.	222,619	186,096	215,990	234,772	202,905	120,727
Russia.	66,996	73,283	84,730	114,582	157,227
Austria-Hungary.	217	2,848	5,185	5,534	5,532
Roumania.	7,844	27,664	22,104	34,715
Argentina.	65,966	73,494	36,857	25,672	65,420
Canada.	13,871	20,301	14,773	31,007	38,780	23,923
India.	38,193	19,548	2,372	15,028	21,058	50,505

CORN CROPS OF COUNTRIES NAMED, 1898-1902.

(Compiled from the Year Book of the U. S. Department of Agriculture, Report of 1903, except as stated.)

COUNTRY	1898	1899	1900	1901	1902
	<i>Bushels</i>	<i>Bushels</i>	<i>Bushels</i>	<i>Bushels</i>	<i>Bushels</i>
United States.	1,924,185,000	2,078,144,000	2,105,103,000	1,522,520,000	2,523,648,000
Canada (Ontario).	24,181,000	22,356,000	27,947,000	25,621,000	21,159,000
Mexico.	111,347,000	93,438,000	92,204,000	93,459,000	78,099,000
North America.	2,059,713,000	2,193,938,000	2,225,254,000	1,641,600,000	2,622,906,000
South America.	69,932,000	81,185,000	66,647,000	113,418,000	97,181,000
Europe.	509,154,000	394,090,000	465,102,000	565,586,000	422,526,000
Africa.	34,408,000	33,207,000	27,350,000	32,350,000	32,350,000
Australasia.	9,412,000	9,780,000	0,025,000	10,168,000	7,847,000
Total.	2,682,619,000	2,712,200,000	2,794,378,000	2,363,122,000	3,182,810,000

ACREAGE IN CROPS. PRINCIPAL COUNTRIES.

(FROM THE STATISTICAL YEAR BOOK OF THE GERMAN EMPIRE, 1903.)

IN ACRES.

COUNTRIES	Year	Wheat	Rye	Barley	Oats	Potatoes
Austria-Hungary.	1900	10,985,325	682,955	5,593,809	7,152,765	4,155,034
Belgium.	1900	417,183	605,434	94,848	625,621	348,270
Denmark.	1901	32,110	664,310	449,540	824,980	132,380
France.	1900	16,954,327	3,506,906	1,869,284	9,735,258	3,729,423
Germany.	1900	5,066,464	14,774,552	4,515,055	10,139,103	8,007,246
Italy.	1895	11,344,710	33,839	733,590	1,190,780	516,230
Netherlands.	1900	157,566	528,580	94,354	324,548	386,061
Norway and Sweden.	1900	204,269	1,047,774	632,320	2,277,834	472,511
Spain.	1899	9,118,598	1,848,054	3,463,681	1,610,328
Russia.	1900	41,265,796	70,626,727	18,687,749	39,981,149	8,996,940
United Kingdom.	1900	189,943	64,961	2,170,930	4,144,019	1,225,602
United States.	1900	42,475,602	1,590,680	2,942,264	27,352,039	2,609,802

Sixty Provinces of European Russia.

The chief wheat countries are (in this order) United States and Russia.

The chief rye producers are Russia and Germany. The chief barley producers are Russia, Austria-Hungary and Germany. The chief oats producers are Russia, the United States, Germany, and France. The chief producers of potatoes are Russia and Germany.

SUGAR CROP OF THE COUNTRIES NAMED, IN TONS OF 2,240 POUNDS.

COUNTRY	1899-1900	1900-1901	1901-1902	1902-1903	1903-1904
<i>Cane Sugar</i>					
United States:					
Louisiana.....	147,164	270,338	310,000	300,000	215,000
Porto Rico.....	35,000	80,000	85,000	85,000	126,000
Hawaiian Islands.....	258,521	321,461	317,905	391,062	393,000
Cuba, crop.....	308,543	635,856	850,181	998,878	1,130,000
Mexico.....	78,000	95,000	103,110	112,679	120,000
British Guiana (Demerara) exports.....	90,079	84,559	123,967	121,570	125,570
Peru, exports.....	100,381	135,000	138,000	140,000	140,000
Argentina.....	91,507	114,252	135,000	130,000	130,000
Brazil.....	322,000	308,011	349,088	187,500	227,000
Total in America.....	1,737,025	2,380,398	2,729,717	2,758,042	2,924,000
Java....., crop.....	721,993	709,928	767,130	842,812	885,561
Philippine Islands, exports.....	62,785	55,400	78,637	90,000	100,000
Total in Asia.....	794,778	780,328	860,767	947,812	1,000,561
Queensland.....	124,070	92,554	120,858	76,626	100,500
Total Australia and Polynesia.....	170,570	144,554	169,858	133,126	170,500
Egypt.....	98,500	94,880	96,200	90,000	90,000
Mauritius.....	157,025	175,267	147,828	150,349	175,000
Total in Africa.....	290,525	305,147	279,028	275,349	300,000
Spain.....	33,215	28,000	28,000	28,000	28,000
Total cane-sugar production (Willet & Gray).....	3,026,113	3,638,427	4,067,370	4,142,329	4,423,061
<i>Beet Sugar</i>					
Europe beet-sugar production (Licht):					
Germany.....	1,798,631	1,984,187	2,304,923	1,762,461	1,950,000
Austria.....	1,108,007	1,094,043	1,301,549	1,057,692	1,175,000
France.....	977,850	1,113,893	1,123,533	833,210	780,000
Russia.....	905,737	918,838	1,098,983	1,256,311	1,200,000
Belgium.....	302,865	333,119	334,960	215,000	210,000
Holland.....	171,029	178,081	203,172	102,411	125,000
Other countries.....	253,929	367,919	393,236	325,082	410,000
Total in Europe.....	5,518,048	5,990,080	6,760,356	5,552,167	5,850,000
United States.....	72,944	75,859	163,126	195,463	208,135
Total cane and beet sugar.....	8,624,105	9,704,366	10,990,852	9,889,959	10,481,196

COTTON CROPS.

FROM STATISTICAL ABSTRACT OF U. S. 1903.	Total commer- cial crop	EXPORTS			RETAINED FOR HOME CON- SUMPTION			Per cent of crop taken by United States mills
		To United King- dom	To all other countries	Total	By Northern mills	By Southern mills	Total	
		In thousands of bales						
1848.....	2423	1,324	534	1,858	532	75	607	25
1858.....	3,257	1,810	780	2,590	452	143	595	18
1868.....	2,599	1,228	428	1,656	800	168	968	37
1878.....	4,774	2,047	1,309	3,356	1,345	151	1,496	31
1888.....	7,047	2,814	1,813	4,627	1,805	456	2,261	32
1898.....	11,216	3,544	3,996	7,540	2,211	1,254	3,465	31
1901.....	10,339	3,050	3,488	6,538	1,964	1,583	3,547	34
1902.....	10,768	3,041	3,601	6,642	2,066	2,017	4,083	38
1903.....	10,674	2,849	3,826	6,675	1,966	1,958	3,924	37

CONSUMPTION OF WOOL IN THE UNITED STATES.

(Imports and Exports for the Year Ending June 30.)

YEAR.	Imports of Wool Entered for Consumption	Home Production of Wool.	Domestic Exports.	Net Supply.	Imports of Wool Manufactures. ¹	Total Consump.	Per Capita Consumption of Wool.
	Pounds. ²	Pounds.	Pounds.	Pounds.	Pounds.	Pounds.	
1840...	\$9,813,212	35,802,114	45,615,326	31,095,276	76,710,602	4.49
1850...	18,695,294	52,516,969	35,898	71,176,365	58,173,613	129,354,978	5.58
1860...	26,125,891	60,264,913	1,055,928	85,334,876	128,497,923	213,832,799	6.80
1870...	38,634,067	162,000,000	152,892	200,481,175	105,289,422	305,770,597	7.93
1880...	99,372,440	232,500,000	191,551	331,680,889	95,503,641	427,184,530	8.52
1890...	109,902,105	276,000,000	231,042	385,671,063	162,496,269	548,167,332	8.75
1900...	128,250,945	\$310,953,140	2,200,309	437,003,776	46,861,460	483,865,236	5.97

¹ Allowing three pounds of wool to the dollar in value. ² Quantities for 1840, 1850 and 1860 are imports, less re-exports. ³ Year ending September 30. ⁴ Census report includes wool and mohair, and pulled wool estimated at 33,000,000 pounds.

EXPORTS OF LEATHER FROM THE U. S.

YEAR ENDING JUNE 30.	Buff, Grain, Splits and All Finished Upper Leather.	Patent or En-ameled.	Sole Leather.	All Other Leather.	Boots and Shoes.	Saddlery and Harness	All Other Manufactures.	Total.
1902.....	\$12,817,017	\$51,930	\$6,569,857	\$1,055,731	\$6,182,098	\$378,775	\$887,316	\$28,042,724
1901.....	11,841,610	82,868	6,576,732	1,257,084	5,526,290	289,089	787,628	26,362,301
1900.....	11,813,256	101,708	6,433,303	1,438,976	4,274,174	504,131	713,713	25,378,894
1899.....	11,576,822	82,908	6,280,904	1,090,574	2,711,385	237,552	792,575	23,466,935
1898.....	9,949,593	93,847	6,644,555	858,421	1,816,538	214,665	1,286,033	21,113,640

LIVE STOCK. PRINCIPAL COUNTRIES.

(FROM THE STATISTICAL YEAR BOOK OF THE GERMAN EMPIRE, 1903.)

COUNTRIES	Year	Horses	Mules Asses	Cattle	Sheep	Swine	Goats
Austria.....	1900	1,710,077	66,647	9,507,626	2,621,026	4,682,654	1,015,682
Hungary.....	1895	1,972,930	22,278	5,829,483	7,526,783	6,447,134	286,392
Belgium.....	1895	271,527	6,915	1,420,976	235,722	1,163,133	241,045
Denmark.....	1898	450,035	139	1,749,313	1,180,878	1,168,496	31,822
France.....	1901	2,926,382	554,952	14,673,810	19,669,682	6,758,198	1,529,280
Germany.....	1900	4,195,361	7,848	18,939,692	9,692,501	16,907,814	3,266,997
Italy.....	1900	741,739	1,300,000	5,000,000	6,900,000	1,800,000	214,594
Netherlands.....	1900	295,000	1,655,600	770,700	746,600	179,500
Norway.....	1900	172,999	950,201	998,819	163,348	214,594
Rumania.....	1900	864,746	7,461	2,589,080	5,644,210	1,709,909	232,623
Russia (Europe).....	1190	21,075,677	35,916,857	52,191,491	12,629,512
Finland.....	1899	308,486	1,457,423	1,031,185	214,206	9,083
Sweden.....	1900	535,050	2,582,555	1,261,493	805,805	79,826
Switzerland.....	1901	124,896	4,866	1,340,375	219,438	555,261	354,634
United Kingdom.....	1901	2,011,701	11,477,824	30,829,889	3,411,129
Canada.....	1891	1,470,572	4,120,580	2,563,781	1,733,850
British India.....	1901	1,339,889	1,239,690	87,188,923	17,859,745	19,617,352
Australia.....	1900	1,915,187	10,128,496	12,186,371	1,188,198
Japan.....	1900	1,542,018	1,490,833	2,400	806,752	157,055
Uruguay.....	1900	561,408	22,992	6,827,428	18,608,717	93,923	20,428
Algiers.....	1900	202,311	412,600	992,551	6,723,952	81,884	3,563,097
United States.....	1902	16,531,224	2,757,017	61,424,599	62,039,091	48,698,890

SHIPPING.

The shipping interests of the United States, in reality very large, are often accounted small by foreigners because they forget our enormous domestic trade. Said Senator Frye in 1899: "The Suez Canal, which carries the commerce of the world, passed last year (1898) 8,500,000 tonnage, while there were floated through the locks at Sault Sainte Marie 16,500,000 in eight months. This fleet moves annually 168,000,000 tons of freight."

THE WORLD'S MERCHANT MARINE.

NUMBER AND NET AND GROSS TONNAGE OF STEAM AND SAILING VESSELS OF OVER 100 TONS, OF THE SEVERAL COUNTRIES OF THE WORLD, AS RECORDED IN LLOYD'S REGISTER FOR 1904-5.

FLAG	STEAM			SAIL		TOTAL	
	Number	Net tons	Gross tons	Number	Net tons	Number	Tonnage
British:							
United Kingdom . . .	7,699	8,586,742	13,999,218	1,537	1,392,132	9,236	15,391,350
Colonies . . .	1,088	516,333	867,309	926	322,186	2,014	1,189,495
Total	8,787	9,103,075	14,866,527	2,463	1,714,318	11,250	16,580,845
American (U. S.):							
Sea	880	869,563	1,311,208	2,090	1,279,141	2,970	2,590,349
Lake	386	846,071	1,129,586	55	129,465	441	1,259,051
Total	1,266	1,715,634	2,440,794	2,145	1,408,606	3,411	3,849,400
Argentine	112	39,758	64,325	95	24,474	207	88,799
Austro-Hungarian	271	354,392	569,990	19	15,160	290	585,156
Belgian	112	104,898	162,456	2	488	115	162,944
Brazilian	232	89,000	140,044	89	23,944	321	163,988
Chilean	54	43,376	69,681	63	39,204	117	108,885
Chinese	46	40,178	62,656			46	62,656
Colombian	3	1,313	2,445	4	934	7	3,793
Cuban	43	27,046	42,201	12	2,324	55	44,525
Danish	396	297,343	505,127	407	92,857	803	597,984
Dutch	394	403,377	643,529	102	44,000	496	687,529
French	755	639,837	1,252,457	621	440,909	1,376	1,693,366
German	1,482	1,775,928	2,891,869	452	477,938	1,935	3,369,807
Greek	212	223,020	350,497	187	50,721	399	401,218
Haitian	6	1,083	2,052			6	2,052
Italian	368	460,869	720,209	870	467,357	1,238	1,187,566
Japanese	591	418,613	668,360	7	3,057	598	671,417
Mexican	36	11,101	18,543	18	5,274	54	23,817
Montenegrin				21	5,319	21	5,319
Norwegian	1,038	620,985	1,017,248	1,180	700,406	2,218	1,717,654
Peruvian	5	3,341	5,132	31	10,012	36	15,144
Philippine Islands	95	28,380	45,437	36	8,132	131	53,569
Portuguese	47	32,617	51,240	149	47,761	196	99,001
Roumanian	18	10,815	19,318	3	634	21	19,952
Russian	650	375,449	609,622	720	230,893	1,370	840,515
Sarawak	4	1,402	2,270	1	669	5	2,939
Siamese	5	1,324	2,405			5	2,405
Spanish	455	445,620	714,172	124	40,683	579	754,855
Swedish	785	327,730	539,481	732	212,052	1,517	751,533
Turkish	125	58,254	93,259	207	60,408	332	153,667
Uruguayan	25	19,020	29,941	37	20,710	62	50,651
Venezuelan	10	1,715	3,210	9	1,282	19	4,492
Zanzibar	3	1,871	2,808			3	2,808
Other countries:							
Arabia, Salvador, Oman, Ecuador, Li- beria, Samoa, Ni- caragua, Bulgaria, Costa Rica, Egypt, Persia, etc.	34	13,777	23,379	17	5,973	51	29,352
Total	18,467	17,692,141	28,632,684	10,823	6,156,505	29,290	34,789,189

CANALS.

THE GREAT SHIP CANALS OF THE WORLD.
(The selection is that of the United States Treasury Department.)

CANAL.	Com- ⁵ pleted.	Connecting.	Length Miles.	Width, Feet. ¹	Depth, Feet.	No. of Locks.	Cost. ²
Suez.....	1869	M'terra'n & Red Sea.	90.	108	31	None.	\$100,000,000
Cronstadt and St. Petersburg.....	1890	Bay of Cronstadt and St. Peterburg. Gulfs of Corinth and Aegina.....	6.	220	20½	None.	10,000,000
Corinth.....	1893	Manchester, Eng., and the Mersey...	4.	70	26½	None.	5,000,000
Manchester.....	1894	Baltic & North Seas.	35.50	120	26	5	75,000,000
Kaiser Wilhelm.....	1895	Baltic & North Seas.	.61	72	29½	—	40,000,000
Elbe and Trave....	1900	Lakes Ontario and Erie.....	41.	72	10	—	25,200,000
Welland.....	1833	Lakes Superior and Huron.....	27.	45	14	26	25,000,000
Sault Ste. Marie (American).....	1855	Lakes Superior and Huron.....	1.6	160	25	1	6,033,533
Sault Ste. Marie (Canadian).....	1895	Lakes Superior and Huron.....	1.125	150	22	1	3,770,621

¹ Minimum width, or width at bottom given wherever possible. ² Cost of construction to State.

PANAMA CANAL—DISTANCES FROM ATLANTIC PORTS TO PACIFIC PORTS BY THE
PRESENT ROUTES.—IN NAUTICAL MILES.

(Prepared by Commander W. H. H. Southerland, Hydrographer, U. S. Navy.)

FROM—	To Port Town- end via San Fran- cisco.	To San Fran- cisco.	To Valpa- raiso.	To Yoko- hama via San Fran- cisco.	To Shang- hai via San Fran- cisco. and Yoko- hama.	To Manila via San Fran- cisco. and Yoko- hama.	To Sydney via Tahiti.	To Mel- bourne via Tahiti and Sydney.	To Well- ington via Tahiti.
New York.....	14,019	13,244	8,461	17,780	18,910	19,530	14,560	15,135	13,600
New Orleans.....	14,419	13,644	8,861	18,180	19,310	19,930	14,960	15,535	14,000
Liverpool.....	14,619	13,844	9,061	18,380	19,510	20,130	15,160	15,735	14,200
Hamburg.....	15,019	14,244	9,461	18,780	19,910	20,530	15,560	16,135	14,600
Bordeaux.....	14,474	13,691	8,916	18,235	19,365	19,985	15,015	15,590	14,055

DISTANCES FROM ATLANTIC PORTS TO PACIFIC PORTS, VIA THE PANAMA CANAL,
WHEN CONSTRUCTED.

(From a special report by the United States Treasury Department.)

FROM—	To Port Town- end via San Fran- cisco.	To San Fran- cisco.	To Valpa- raiso.	To Yoko- hama via San Fran- cisco. ¹	To Shang- hai via San Fran- cisco ¹ and Yoko- hama. ¹	To Manila via San Fran- cisco and Yoko- hama. ¹	To Sydney via Tahiti. ²	To Mel- bourne via Tahiti ³ and Sydney ²	To Well- ington via Tahiti.
New York.....	6,074	5,299	4,630	9,835	10,885	11,585	9,852	10,427	8,892
New Orleans.....	5,477	4,698	4,029	9,234	10,284	10,984	9,251	9,826	8,291
Liverpool.....	8,813	8,038	7,369	12,574	13,624	14,324	12,591	13,166	11,631
Hamburg.....	9,242	8,467	7,798	13,003	14,053	14,753	13,020	13,595	12,060
Bordeaux.....	8,713	7,938	7,269	12,474	13,524	14,224	12,491	13,066	11,471
Gibraltar.....	8,447	7,672	7,003	12,208	13,258	13,958	12,221	11,168	11,265

¹Via Honolulu, add 252 miles. ²Omitting Tahiti reduces voyage from Brito by 52 miles.

³Voyage from Brito to Sydney by way of Wellington is 232 miles less than by way of Tahiti; from Panama it is 405 miles less. ⁴Voyage from Brito to Wellington direct is 185 miles shorter than via Tahiti, and from Panama it is 358 miles shorter.

THE NEW ISTHMIAN CANAL.

A continental wall, nearly 9,000 miles long, forbade Columbus to realize his bold vision of reaching the Far East by sailing west.

For four hundred years men have dreamed of piercing this wall, thus saving a third of the distance in circumnavigating the globe. In 1551 the Spanish historian, Gomara, urged on Philip II. the importance of cutting the isthmus.

When Napoleon asked his ministers whether he should cede Louisiana to the United States, Derès replied: "If the Isthmus of Panama is cut through some day, it will occasion an immense revolution in navigation, so that a voyage around the world will be easier than the longest cruise to-day. Louisiana will be on the line of this new route, and its possession will be of inestimable value. Don't give it up."

The subject of an interoceanic canal is world-wide in its importance. Many nations have interested themselves in it; many men have given themselves to the study of it; many volumes have been written on it; many lives have been sacrificed to it; many millions of gold have been spent for it. Over no portion of the earth's surface has the engineer's level been so repeatedly run. And now what the ages have waited for, the new century is about to witness. What the genius of Columbus failed to find, the genius of modern science is about to create.

From this new-world condition will follow important results, geographical, commercial, and political. Let us lance at each.

EFFECT OF PANAMA CANAL.

Today the eastern United States are about as far from the Pacific ports by water as is Western Europe. With the canal they will be nearly 3,000 miles nearer. In other words, commercially speaking, the Pacific will be brought nearer New York by a distance equal to its entire width. The Central and Southern United States will be aided still more. The Mississippi will almost empty into the Pacific. It will be possible to steam from Pittsburg to Hong Kong and from Nebraska to Australia, perhaps from Chicago and Duluth to Shanghai and Manila. The Mississippi Valley, with its 1,244,000 square miles, its 5,000 miles of waterway navigable by steam, its inexhaustible fertility and great variety of product; the South with its cotton, its inexhaustible mines of the finest coal in Alabama, its pig iron in Alabama and Tennessee—all this will have a new gateway and that into the new Mediterranean of the World.

The Pacific is surrounded by peoples now numbering 500,000,000, one-third of the human race, and if we include India, to which the commerce of the Pacific has easy access, the numbers rise to 800,000,000, or one-half the human race. Here, too, is the great room for growth. All of the great undeveloped habitable portions of the earth, except Africa, are ranged around the Pacific—Alaska, British America, our great West, Central and South America, Australia, some of the larger East Indies and Siberia. To the United States, already the greatest manufacturing and producing country of the world, the canal will give a great natural advantage over Europe.

Although the United States comprised only 5 per cent. of the world's population, it produced, in 1900, 22 per cent. of the world's wheat, 30 per cent. of its gold, 32 per cent. of its coal, 33 per cent. of its silver, 34 per cent. of its manufactures, 35 per cent. of its iron, 36 per cent. of its cattle, 38 per cent. of its steel, 50 per cent. of its petroleum, 54 per cent. of its copper, 75 per cent. of cotton, and 84 per cent. of its corn. New York City has more wealth than was in the entire country in 1840.—*The World's Work*, February, 1905.

RAILWAYS OF THE WORLD.

(COMPILED FROM THE STATISTICAL YEAR BOOK OF THE GERMAN EMPIRE 1903.
STATISTICS FOR 1901 IN MILES.)

Africa—		Paraguay.....	157	Netherlands.....	2,022
Algiers and Tunis.....	3,039	Peru.....	1,035	Norway.....	1,305
British Possessions.....	3,671	Uruguay.....	1,143	Portugal.....	1,483
Egypt.....	2,885	Venezuela.....	634	Rumania.....	1,969
Orange Free State.....	596			Russia (Europe).....	31,925
Other countries.....	3,987	Total America, S. . .	26,728	Servia.....	359
Total Africa.....	14,178	Asia—		Spain.....	8,393
America, N.—		British India.....	25,352	Sweden.....	7,196
Antilles.....	656	Ceylon.....	296	Switzerland.....	2,428
Canada.....	18,279	China.....	767	Turkey (Europe) ²	1,951
Costa Rica.....	162	Dutch E. Indies ¹	1,383	United Kingdom.....	22,022
Cuba.....	1,133	Japan.....	4,070	Islands.....	68
Guatemala.....	397	Korea.....	26	Total Europe.....	180,576
Honduras.....	57	Malay States.....	278	Oceanica—	
Mexico.....	9,597	Persia.....	33	Hawaii.....	88
Newfoundland.....	655	Portugese possessions.....	50	New South Wales.....	2,843
Nicaragua.....	140	Russia (Asiatic).....	7,318	New Zealand.....	2,339
Santa Domingo.....	116	Siam.....	237	Queensland.....	2,799
United States.....	197,077	Turkey (Asiatic).....	1,714	Tasmania.....	478
Total America N. . .	228,269	Other countries.....	268	South Australia.....	1,881
America S.—		Total Asia.....	41,792	Victoria.....	3,235
Argentina.....	10,412	Europe—		West Australia.....	1,976
Bolivia.....	621	Austria-Hungary.....	23,262	Total Oceanica.....	15,639
Brazil.....	9,189	Belgium.....	4,022	The World.....	507,182
Chile.....	2,877	Denmark.....	1,905		
Columbia.....	400	France.....	27,111		
Ecuador.....	186	Germany.....	32,733		
Guiana, British.....	74	Greece.....	604		
		Italy.....	9,818		

¹ Java and Sumatra.² Including Bulgaria.

THE UNITED STATES.

STATISTICS FOR 1904.

(From the Preliminary Report of the Interstate Commerce Commission for the year Ending June 30, 1904.)

This report covers 690 operating companies, with a mileage of 209,002 miles, or about 99 per cent. of the mileage that will be embraced in the full report.

On the mileage stated the gross earnings of the railways for the year ending June 30, 1904, were \$1,966,633,821. The gross earnings for the year ending June 30, 1903, on 205,313.54 miles of line, as shown in the final report, were \$1,900,846,907. The total gross earnings for 1904 comprised earnings from the passenger service amounting to \$539,428,374, or 27.43 per cent., and earnings from the freight service amounting to \$1,377,684,976, or 70.06 per cent. Other earnings from miscellaneous sources, included in the grand total above stated, amounted to \$49,520,471, or 2.51 per cent. The average of gross earnings from operation per mile of line was \$9,410. This average exceeds the average for 1903 by \$152 and for 1902 by \$785 and is larger than the corresponding average for any previous year for which the Commission has published a statistical report. Of the gross earnings per mile of line \$2,581 were assignable to the passenger service and \$6,592 to the freight service.

The operating expenses of the railways included in the preliminary report amounted to \$1,332,382,948, being equivalent to an average expenditure of \$6,375 per mile of line, or of \$250 more per mile than was the case with respect to the year 1903. The ratio of operating expenses to earnings, as shown in this report, was 67.75 per cent. According to the final report for 1903, this item was 66.16 per cent. The net earnings of essentially the same roads, as shown by the present statement, were, for the year ending June 30, 1904, \$634,250,873, and for the year 1903, \$640,644,138.

Earnings from the passenger service are from three principal sources, namely, passenger revenue, the transportation of mail, and the transportation of express. From the above summary it appears that the railways received from the transportation of passengers \$421,704,592; from the transportation of mail \$41,709,396; and from the transportation of express \$38,331,964. Other earnings incidental to the passenger service amounted to \$9,821,277.

The chief source of revenue, however, is the transportation of freight. During the year covered by this report the railways received from this source \$1,338,020,026. Including all the items in the above summary, it appears that the freight service contributes 70.63 per cent., and the passenger service 26.91 per cent. to the total of railway earnings from operation.

The income to railways from other sources—that is to say, from rentals, dividends on stocks owned, interest on bonds owned, and other investments for the year covered by this report was \$205,687,480, which sum being added to the income from operation shows that the total earnings and income for which the reports of the railways must account was, for the year ending June 30, 1903, \$2,106,534,387. As compared with the previous year, this shows an increase in the moneys handled by railways of \$183,830,491.

ITEM	1893 ¹	1900	1901	1902	1903
Revenue per passenger per mile, cents.	\$ 2.111	\$ 2.003	\$ 2.013	\$ 1.986	\$ 2.006
Revenue per ton of freight per mile, cent.879	.729	.750	.757	.763
Revenue per train mile, passenger trains.	1.06.984	1.01.075	1.02.721	1.08.531	1.11.644
Revenue per train mile, freight trains.	1.63.018	2.00.042	2.13.212	2.27.093	2.43.967
Revenue per train mile, all trains	1.43.475	1.65.721	1.72.938	1.82.350	1.91.330
Average cost of running a train 1 mile, all trains.	0.97.426	1.07.288	1.12.292	1.17.960	1.26.604

GENERAL BALANCE SHEET FOR THE YEAR ENDING JUNE 30, 1903.

ASSETS		LIABILITIES	
Cost of road.	\$10,273,737,180	Capital stock	\$6,270,032,726
Cost of equipment.	699,767,723	Funded debt.	6,804,777,828
Stocks owned.	1,672,979,910	Current liabilities.	859,546,557
Bonds owned.	513,136,203	Accrued interest on funded debt not yet payable.	43,347,946
Cash and current assets.	766,834,239	Miscellaneous.	658,535,366
Materials and supplies.	148,178,206	Profit and loss.	522,857,435
Sinking fund and sundries.	124,768,415		
Miscellaneous.	959,695,982		
Total.	15,159,097,858	Total.	15,159,097,858

The payment for taxes per mile of line in the entire country was \$274 in the fiscal year 1902 and \$290 in 1903.

EXORBITANT RAILWAY CHARGES THE REAL CAUSE OF POSTAL DEFICIT.

In his book, "*A General Freight and Passenger Post*," pp 61, 68, 240, 243-245, Mr. J. L. Cowles, by quotations from the postmasters' reports proves that the real cause of the postal deficit is in the exorbitant and often dishonest charges made by the railways for carrying the United States mails. He shows that the average haul of a United States mail bag is 442 miles, and that for this the railroads charge the government \$160 a ton, while on occasion for express companies they carry matter that distance for \$8 a ton. The railroad charge for carrying the mails is 8 cents per pound, yet the railroads have been long fighting for the privilege of carrying certain articles from New Orleans to San Francisco for 4-5 of a cent a pound. Mr. Cowles shows from Mr. Vilas's reports that the railroads charge the government every year for the use of the postal cars (besides the 8 cents a pound) more than it would cost to build the cars!

ITEM	1903	1902	1901	1900	1899
Passengers carried					
a. Number of passengers reported as carried	694,891,585	649,787,505	607,278,121	576,865,230	593,560,612
Passengers carried 1 mile	20,915,763,881	19,689,937,620	17,353,588,434	16,039,007,217	14,229,101,084
Passengers carried 1 mile per mile of line	103,291	99,314	89,721	83,295	83,809
Tons carried:					
a. Number of tons reported as carried	1,304,394,323	1,200,315,787	1,089,226,440	1,101,680,238	745,119,482
b. Number of tons reported as carried, excluding tonnage received from connecting roads and other carriers					
Tons carried 1 mile	173,221,278,993	157,289,370,053	147,077,136,040	141,599,157,270	93,588,111,833
Tons carried 1 mile per mile of line	855,442	793,351	760,414	735,366	551,232
Passenger-train mileage	425,142,204	405,613,231	385,172,567	363,521,596	335,618,770
Average number of passengers in train	46	45	41	41	42
Average journey per passenger miles	30.10	30.30	28.38	27.80	28.97
Freight-train mileage	526,312,433	499,711,176	491,942,041	492,568,486	508,917,506
Average number of tons in train	310.54	296.47	281.26	281.26	183.97
Average haul per ton	132.80	131.04	135.03	128.53	125.60
a. Typical haul of the average railway, miles					
b. Typical haul of all the railways regarded as a system, miles					
Total revenue-train mileage	982,946,284	936,148,657	908,092,818	886,781,590	886,781,590
Total mileage of freight cars	14,193,718	13,326,514,369	12,811,211,703	12,811,211,703	12,811,211,703

FASTEST LONG-DISTANCE TRAINS OF THE WORLD, INCLUDING STOPS, ACCORDING TO THE "RAILROAD GAZETTE."

ROUTE	Railways	From	To	Miles	Time— Hrs. Min.	Stops	Inclusive Speed in Miles per Hour
Sud Express	Orleans and Midi	Paris	Bayonne	486½	8 59	6	54.13
Empire State Express	N. Y. C. and H. R. R.	New York	Buffalo	440	8 15	4	53.33
East Coast	Gt. N. and N. E. Railways	London	Edinburgh	393½	7 45	3	50.77
West Coast	L. & N. W. and Caledonian Rys.	London	Glasgow	401½	8 00	3	50.18

Of long-distance runs in France one is made on the Northern Railway of France by the Paris-Calais express, which runs 185½ miles in 184½ minutes, or a fraction over a mile a minute, allowing for a stoppage of 2½ minutes at Amiens.

SOCIAL PROGRESS

STREET RAILWAYS.

FROM TWELFTH CENSUS BULLETIN 3.

COMPARATIVE SUMMARY 1890 AND 1902.			Wages per day.	All classes.
ITEMS.	1902.	1890.		94,874
			Less than 0.75.	137
			0.75 to 0.99. . . .	589
			1.00 to 1.24. . . .	2,719
			1.25 to 1.49. . . .	4,468
			1.50 to 1.74. . . .	51,361
			1.75 to 1.99. . . .	15,198
			2.00 to 2.24. . . .	39,678
			2.25 to 2.49. . . .	10,421
			2.50 to 2.74. . . .	3,262
			2.75 to 2.99. . . .	1,045
			3.00 to 3.24. . . .	1,061
			3.25 to 3.49. . . .	294
			3.50 to 3.74. . . .	343
			3.75 to 3.99. . . .	84
			4.00 to 4.24. . . .	145
			4.25 to 4.49. . . .	12
			4.50 to 4.74. . . .	25
			4.75 to 4.99. . . .	7
			5.00 and over. . . .	25
Number of companies.	987	706		
Cost of construction and equipment. . . .	\$2,167,634,077	\$389,357,289		
Capital stock issued.	\$1,315,572,960	\$289,058,133		
Funded debt outstanding.	\$992,709,139	\$189,177,824		
Earnings from operation.	\$247,553,999	\$90,617,211		
Operating expenditures.	\$142,312,597	\$62,011,185		
Percentage operating expenses of earnings.	57.5	68.4		
Number of passenger cars.	60,290	32,505		
Number of fare passengers carried.	4,809,554,438	2,023,010,202		
Number of employees ¹	133,641	70,764		

¹ Exclusive of salaried officials and clerks.

According to the *Street Railway Journal*, there were, in 1902, 25,789 track miles of electric elevated or surface street railways and 640 with other motor power.

TELEGRAPHS.

POSTAL TELEGRAPH CABLE COMPANY.

YEAR.	Miles of poles and cable operated but not owned.	Miles of poles and cable owned.	Miles of wires.	Offices.	Messages.
1885.		2,811	23,587	260	1,428,690
1890.		11,142	67,751	1,050	7,380,000
1900.	17,385	26,042	226,465	13,100	16,528,444
1901.	17,500	26,349	243,422	14,877	17,898,073
1902.	21,043	26,476	266,122	16,248	20,086,930
1903.	21,319	27,482	276,245	19,977	21,600,577

WESTERN UNION TELEGRAPH COMPANY.

YEAR ENDING JUNE 30.	Miles of line.	Miles of wire.	Number of offices	Number of messages sent.	Receipts.	Expenses.	Profits.	AVERAGE PER MESSAGE.	
								Toll. cts.	Cost. cts.
1870.	54,109	112,191	3,972	9,157,646	7,138,738	4,910,772	2,227,966	75.5	51.2
1880.	85,645	233,534	9,077	29,215,509	12,782,895	6,948,957	5,833,938	38.5	25.4
1890.	183,917	678,997	19,382	55,878,762	22,387,029	15,074,304	7,312,725	32.4	22.7
1900.	192,705	933,153	22,900	63,167,783	24,758,570	18,593,206	6,165,364	30.8	25.1
1901.	193,589	972,766	23,238	65,657,049	26,354,151	19,668,903	6,685,248	30.9	25.1
1902.	196,115	1,029,984	23,567	69,374,883	29,073,095	20,780,766	7,292,329	31.0	25.7
1903.	195,577	1,089,212	23,120	69,790,866	29,167,687	20,953,215	8,214,472	31.4	25.6

¹ Not including messages over leased miles, or under P. R. contract, probably 10,000,000.

The greatly increased mileage since 1880 is principally due to the fact that in 1881 the Western Union Telegraph Company absorbed by purchase all the lines of the American Union and the Atlantic and Pacific Telegraph companies.

The Western Union has exclusive contracts with several international cable companies, operating eight Atlantic cables, and guarantees 5 per cent¹

annual dividends on the stock of the American Telegraph and Cable Company; amount, \$14,000,000.

The Western Union leases and operates the lines of the New York Mutual Telegraph Company and of the Northwestern Telegraph Company. It has purchased the Baltimore and Ohio R. R. Telegraph Co. and the American Rapid Telegraph Co.

TELEPHONES.

AMERICAN TELEPHONE AND TELEGRAPH COMPANY AND OPERATING COMPANIES.

	1897	1898	1899	1900	1901	1902	1903
Exchanges.....	967	1,025	1,126	1,239	1,348	1,411	1,514
Branch offices...	832	937	1,008	1,187	1,427	1,594	1,861
Total employees.	14,425	16,682	19,668	25,741	32,837	40,864	50,350
Total subscribers	325,244	384,230	465,180	632,946	800,880	1,020,647	1,277,983
Length of wire,							
miles.....	805,711	951,283	1,058,900	1,518,609	1,961,801	2,445,284	3,281,662
Average daily							
calls per sub-							
scriber.....	8.3	8.1	8.2	8.2	7.1	7.4	7.3
Received in rent-							
als.....	\$1,597,959	\$1,610,856	\$1,714,527	\$2,427,038	\$2,647,910	\$2,299,379
Dividends paid..	3,682,949	3,882,945	3,882,945	4,078,601	5,050,024	6,584,404
Capital.....			25,886,300	89,100,500	104,650,600	126,118,972
Gross earnings..	5,130,845	5,448,701	7,687,381	9,534,499	11,606,817	13,277,557
Net earnings....	4,169,675	4,393,967	4,270,509	5,486,058	7,398,286	7,835,272

CENTRAL ELECTRIC LIGHT AND POWER STATIONS.

(From Twelfth Census, Bulletin 5.)

CENTRAL ELECTRIC STATIONS, 1902.

ITEMS.	Private Stations.	Municipal Stations.	Rates per Day.	All Classes.
			(Dollars.)	
			Total...	18,878
Number of stations.....	2,805	815	Less than 0.75..	133
Cost of construction and equipment.....	\$482,719,879	\$22,020,473	0.75 to 0.99..	229
Earnings from operation.....	\$77,349,749	\$6,836,856	1.00 to 1.24..	990
Income from all other sources.....	\$1,385,751	\$128,249	1.25 to 1.49..	1,613
Gross income.....	\$78,735,500	\$6,965,105	1.50 to 1.74..	3,380
Total expenses.....	\$62,835,388	\$5,245,987	1.75 to 1.99..	2,314
			2.00 to 2.24..	4,089
			2.25 to 2.49..	1,807
Salared officials and clerks:			2.50 to 2.74..	1,899
Average number.....	6,046	950	2.75 to 2.99..	823
Salaries.....	\$5,206,199	\$457,381	3.00 to 3.24..	832
			3.25 to 3.49..	309
Wage-earners:			3.50 to 3.74..	191
Average number.....	20,863	2,467	3.75 to 3.99..	43
Wages.....	\$13,560,771	\$1,422,341	4.00 to 4.24..	123
			4.25 to 4.49..	24
Output of stations:			4.50 to 4.74..	16
Kilowatt hours—total for year.....	2,257,598,213	195,904,439	4.75 to 4.99..	8
Total number of arc lamps.....	334,903	50,795	5.00 and over..	55
Total number of incandescent lamps....	16,616,593	1,577,451		

¹Includes estimated income from public service.

SOCIAL PROGRESS

POSTOFFICE STATISTICS.

FROM THE ANNUAL REPORTS OF THE POSTMASTER-GENERAL.

YEAR	Number of offices	Receipts	Expenditures	Surplus	Deficit.
1792.....	195	\$67,443.00	\$54,530.00	\$12,913.00
1802.....	1,114	327,044.00	269,866.00	57,178.00
1812.....	2,610	649,208.00	540,165.00	109,043.00
1822.....	4,709	1,117,490.00	1,167,572.00	\$50,082.00
1832.....	9,205	2,258,570.00	2,266,171.00	7,601.00
1842.....	13,733	4,546,849.00	5,674,752.00	1,127,903.00
1852.....	20,901	6,925,971.00	7,108,459.00	182,488.00
1862.....	28,875	8,299,821.00	11,125,364.00	2,825,543.00
1872.....	31,863	21,915,426.00	26,658,192.00	4,742,766.00
1882.....	46,231	41,883,005.00	40,482,021.00	1,400,984.00
1892.....	67,119	70,930,475.00	76,980,846.00	6,050,371.00
1902.....	75,924	121,848,047.00	124,785,697.00	2,937,649.00
1903.....	74,169	134,224,443.00	138,784,443.00	4,560,044.00
1904.....	71,131	143,582,624.34	152,362,116.70	8,779,492.36

The decrease in the number of postoffices for the past two years is due to the discontinuance of minor offices superseded by rural free delivery.

Rural Free Delivery has grown from 0 services in 1896 to 24,556 routes in 1904. There were delivered on these rural routes during the last fiscal year 906,424,121 pieces of mail. 133,083,351 pieces were collected. The pay of the carriers was \$12,122,725. Money orders in 1904 were for (domestic) \$378,778,488, and (international) \$42,550,150. The total length of routes of all kinds was 496,818 miles; of railroad routes, 196,907 miles.

Expenditures on account of the railway mail service, including officers, clerks, and other items, last year amounted to \$12,105,549.77. This does not include compensation to railroads for transportation or for railway postal cars. The number of officials and clerks was 11,444. It is estimated that these clerks handled 17,132,840,230 pieces of ordinary mail and 36,699,264 packages and cases of registered mail. The errors by clerks in handling the mail, as reported, indicate but one error for every 11,181 pieces correctly distributed.

The net cost of the foreign mail service last year was \$2,516,053.06. During the fiscal year ended June 30, 1904, there were dispatched from United States 129,397 parcels, with a total weight of 464,697 pounds; there were received by the United States 54,078 parcels, with a total weight of 192,396 pounds.

The United States Postoffice employed in 1903, 10,555 clerks, who handled 8,654,147,680 pieces of first-class mail matter, 7,345,654,950 of other classes and 29,897,063 registered packages and cases. The errors reported were one for every 11,530 pieces handled.

INTERNATIONAL STATISTICS.

COUNTRY	Population to each Postoffice	Number of articles of every kind received and sent to each inhabitant	Postal Surplus or Deficiency — Deficiency
New Zealand.....	477	84.3	\$455,698.33
Canada.....	502	50.1	—698,628.87
New South Wales.....	625	96.2	310,864.08
Victoria.....	723	97.1	300,867.70
Norway.....	925	20.7	53,940.81
Switzerland.....	937	67.7	421,167.76
United States.....	993	95.6	—4,894,718.86
Germany.....	1,519	61.6	4,426,419.82
Great Britain.....	1,847	88.9	19,115,705.66
Italy.....	3,626	26.1	313,844.83
France.....	3,778	52.2	13,260,954.30
Russia.....	11,492	4.3	12,119,297.34
Kongo.....	2,000,000	.007

PUBLIC LANDS.

(From the Report of the Land Office, 1903.)

STATE OR TERRITORY	AREA UNAPPROPRIATED AND UNRESERVED			Area Reserved	Area appropriated
	Surveyed	Unsurveyed	Total		
	<i>Acres.</i>	<i>Acres.</i>	<i>Acres.</i>	<i>Acres.</i>	<i>Acres.</i>
Alabama	258,420		258,420	52,020	32,347,480
Alaska		367,983,506	367,983,506	20,174	
Arizona	11,691,038	35,312,783	47,003,821	20,159,837	5,628,662
Arkansas	2,759,553		2,759,553	2,560	30,781,567
California	29,456,676	7,508,854	36,965,530	19,718,027	43,286,363
Colorado	33,638,530	4,288,086	37,926,616	5,486,643	22,934,901
Florida	1,179,197	160,070	1,339,267	19,259	33,714,114
Idaho	12,376,285	29,409,495	41,785,780	1,334,031	10,173,629
Illinois					35,842,560
Indiana					22,950,400
Indian Territory				19,658,880	
Iowa					35,646,080
Kansas	1,047,831		1,047,831	987,875	50,347,014
Louisiana	109,964	65,018	174,982	1,468,434	27,411,944
Michigan	365,065		365,065	120,695	36,333,440
Minnesota	3,498,127	1,670,558	5,168,685	2,686,355	43,343,040
Mississippi	112,720		112,720		29,572,400
Missouri	227,158		227,158		43,568,682
Montana	18,244,326	39,641,337	57,885,663	17,384,134	18,323,803
Nebraska	8,848,906		8,848,906	606,611	39,681,763
Nevada	30,792,220	30,485,688	61,277,908	5,983,409	3,075,323
New Mexico	39,336,648	14,435,711	53,772,359	6,606,759	18,049,682
North Dakota	8,749,864	4,447,475	13,197,339	3,325,490	28,387,251
Ohio					26,062,720
Oklahoma	3,091,333		3,091,333	3,762,462	17,920,605
Oregon	17,182,749	5,923,067	23,105,816	12,801,800	25,369,824
South Dakota	10,522,553	382,601	10,905,154	12,722,374	25,578,872
Utah	11,526,008	29,843,553	41,369,561	6,187,645	4,984,234
Washington	4,464,185	5,021,007	9,485,192	11,865,205	21,396,483
Wisconsin	113,001		113,001	432,524	34,729,395
Wyoming	34,543,998	2,574,871	37,118,869	15,790,840	9,523,571
Grand total	284,136,355	579,153,680	863,290,035	169,284,043	776,965,802

It will be borne in mind that the greater portion of the vacant land is in the timbered regions of the Southern States, the lake region, the Pacific coast, and the mountainous and arid regions of the Far West, and that the portion of lands cultivable without clearing or irrigation is comparatively small. It is a reasonable conclusion, however, that vast bodies of the arid lands will, in time, be reclaimed by irrigation as the result of the efforts of the Government to construct storage basins and ditches for the purpose, as provided in the act of Congress approved June 17, 1902, seconded, as undoubtedly it will be, by private enterprise.

PATENTS.

(From the Reports of the Commissioner of Patents.)

	Number of First Patent and certificate Issued in each Calendar Year					Number of Patents and Certificates of registration issued During each Calendar Year						
	Patents	De-signs	Re-issues	Trade-marks	La-bels	Pat-ents	De-signs	Re-issues	Total pat-pat-ents	Trade-marks	Labels and prints	Total cer-tificates
1901	664,827	33,813	11,879	35,678	8,009	25,558	1,734	81	27,373	1,928	1,037	2,965
1902	690,385	35,547	11,960	37,606	8,887	27,136	640	110	7,886	2,006	925	2,931
1903	717,521	36,187	12,070	39,612	9,654	31,046	536	117	31,699	2,186	1,260	3,446
1904	748,567	36,723	12,189	41,798	10,644							

SOCIAL PROGRESS

PENSIONS.

The following amounts have been paid to soldiers, their widows, minor children, and dependent relatives on account of military and naval service during the wars in which the United States has been engaged:

YEAR ENDING JUNE 30	NUMBER OF PENSIONERS ON THE ROLLS			First Pay- ments	Pensions, ex- clusive of First payments	Total disbursements	Cost, Main- tenance, and expenses
	Invalids	Widows etc.	Total				
				<i>Dollars</i>	<i>Dollars</i>	<i>Dollars</i>	<i>Dollars</i>
1861	4,337	4,299	8,636			1,072,461.55	
1871	93,394	114,101	207,495			33,077,383.63	863,079.00
1881	164,110	104,720	268,830	23,628,176.61	26,458,498.14	50,626,538.51	1,072,059.64
1891	536,821	139,339	676,160	38,652,274.31	78,326,898.41	118,548,959.71	4,700,636.44
1901	748,649	249,086	997,735	9,934,763.54	128,596,720.30	138,531,483.84	3,863,795.44
1902	739,443	260,003	999,446	8,677,548.44	128,826,719.55	137,504,267.99	3,831,378.96
1903	729,356	267,189	996,545	9,359,905.69	127,399,748.02	137,759,653.71	3,993,216.79

Revolutionary war (estimated)	\$70,000,000.00
War of 1812 (on account of service, without regard to disability)	45,186,197.22
Indian wars (on account of service, without regard to disability)	6,234,414.55
War with Mexico (on account of service, without regard to disability)	33,483,309.91
War of the rebellion	2,878,240,400.17
War with Spain	5,479,268.31
Actual total disbursements in pensions	3,038,623,590.16

MEMBERSHIP OF FRATERNAL ORGANIZATIONS.

According to the last reports of the supreme bodies of these organizations, the membership of the principal fraternal organizations in the United States and Canada is as follows:

Odd Fellows	1,341,375	Knights and Ladies of Honor	76,761
Freemasons	1,011,655	Court of Honor	70,428
Modern Woodmen of America	700,359	Knights of the Golden Eagle	69,385
Knights of Pythias	594,833	National Union	69,000
Ancient Order of United Workmen	423,015	Improved Order of Heptasophs	62,860
Knights of the Maccabees	375,000	Catholic Mutual Benevolent Assoc.	58,035
Improved Order of Red Men	355,662	Protected Home Circle	56,000
Royal Arcanum	303,597	Knights of Honor	52,600
Foresters of America	229,081	Brotherhood of American Yeomen	47,025
Independent Order of Foresters	224,000	Brith Abraham Order	46,234
Woodmen of the World	217,128	Order of Gleaners	46,000
Benevolent and Protective Order of Elks	200,000	United Order of American Mechanics	42,691
Ancient Order of Hibernians	193,832	New England Order of Protection	39,098
Order of Eagles	165,000	Ancient Order of Foresters	38,898
Ladies of the Maccabees	149,060	Sons of Temperance	34,789
Junior Order of United Amer. Me- chanics	130,977	Independent Order of B'nai B'rith	31,500
Knights of the Modern Maccabees	127,000	Catholic Benevolent Legion	28,000
Knights of Columbus	122,645	Knights of Malta	28,000
Ladies' Catholic Benevolent Assoc.	87,400	Smaller organizations	333,738
Tribe of Ben Hur	85,267		
		Total	8,278,779

CONCENTRATION OF WEALTH.

TWO VIEWS.

Those who deny any concentration of wealth, do not deny that in the United States and Great Britain the rich are getting richer, but they assert that the poor are also getting richer, and on the whole gaining on the rich. Perhaps the strongest argument for this view in the United States has been made by Edward Atkinson in a series of articles in the *Century* (Vol. XXXIV), quoting census and other reports to show that on the whole, wages are rising and prices falling, while, on the other hand, rates of interest are falling, so that the poor are getting an ever-increasing share of an ever-increasing product, while the rich have to invest larger amounts of capital and at an ever-decreasing rate of interest.

Critics of this view show that *until recently* wages have not risen since 1873, and that the recent rise of wages has been accompanied by a rise of prices, some think sufficient to offset all rise in wages. This autumn, wages, too, have somewhat generally fallen. *Except where strong unions have raised* the rate, it is asserted that wages, if raised at all, have risen very little. For full discussion of both sides see Bliss' "Encyclopedia of Social Reform," Art. "Wages." As for falling interest, this is not denied, but this is no proof that profits and dividends have not risen.

In Great Britain the strongest argument that wealth is not concentrating has probably been made by Sir R. Giffin, president of the English Statistical Society. See his "Progress of the Working Classes" and for an answer to this see C. B. Spahr's "Present Distribution of Wealth," pp. 15-18. Or for both views, see the encyclopedia article referred to above. A more popular argument has been made by Mr. W. H. Mallock in his "Classes and Masses." He does not deny that there are absolutely more poor today in England than formerly, but contends that there are not so many relatively to the population, while that the great advance in numbers has been of the middle class. But to prove this he has to include as middle class all having a smaller income than \$5,000 per year. If one limits the wealthy to the very wealthy, none contend that they have grown in numbers; it is only contended that they have grown in wealth and this contention Mr. Mallock dodges. The ordinary view that wealth is concentrating, to say the least has strong support. Dr. Spahr in his "Present Distribution of Wealth" (1896) from an examination of the surrogate court records of thirty-six counties in New York State, outside of New York City, and applying the proportion to the nation at large, comes to the conclusion that seven-eighths of the families hold but one-eighth of the national wealth, while one per cent. of the families hold more than the remaining 99 per cent. He constructs the following table:

ESTATES.	Number.	Aggregate Wealth.	Average Wealth.
The wealthy classes, \$50,000 and over.	125,000	\$33,000,000,000	\$264,000
The well-to-do classes, \$50,000 to \$5,000.	1,375,000	23,000,000,000	16,000
The middle classes, \$5,000 to \$500.	5,500,000	8,200,000,000	1,500
The poorer classes, under \$500	5,500,000	800,000,000	150
	12,500,000	\$65,000,000,000	\$5,200

Professor Mayo-Smith has attempted to challenge Dr. Spahr's conclusions, but with small success. (See Prof. Ely's "Evolution of Industrial Society," Chap. VI, 1903). Says Dr. Spahr:

Since the completion of this study, a volume has appeared that must set at rest all question as to extreme moderation of the estimates reached. Part II of the Report of the Massachusetts Bureau of Labor Statistics for 1894 publishes the inventoried probates for the entire State of

Massachusetts during the three years 1889, 1890, and 1891. Although the estates for which no inventories are filed are, as a rule, the largest, the following concentration of property is exhibited: the estates of \$50,000 and over aggregated 55 per cent. of the total amount of property, while estates less than \$5,000 aggregated but 11 per cent. of the total.

It must be remembered, too, that Mr. G. K. Holmes, expert on wealth statistics for the tenth census found that 0.3 per cent. of the people owned 20 per cent. of the wealth; 8.97 per cent. of the people 51 per cent. of the wealth; and 91 per cent. of the people only 29 per cent. of the wealth.

CONCENTRATION OF POWER.

Who controls the United States?

In *The World's Work** for December, 1903, Mr. Sereno S. Pratt undertakes to answer this question. He says in brief—we condense his words:—

One-twelfth of the estimated wealth of the United States is represented at the meeting of the board of directors of the United States Steel Corporation.

They represent as influential directors more than 200 other companies. These companies operate nearly one-half of the railroad mileage of the United States. They are the great miners and carriers of coal. The leading telegraph system, the traction lines of New York, of Philadelphia, of Pittsburg, of Buffalo, of Chicago, and of Milwaukee, and one of the principal express companies, are represented in the board. This group includes also directors of five insurance companies, two of which have assets of \$700,000,000. In the Steel Board are men who speak for five banks and ten trust companies in New York City including the First National, the National City, and the Bank of Commerce, the three greatest banks in the country, and the head of important chains of financial institutions. Telephone, electric, real estate, cable and publishing companies are represented there, and our greatest merchant sits at the board table.

What the individual wealth of these men is, it would be impossible and beside the point to estimate; but one of them, Mr. John D. Rockefeller, is generally esteemed to be the richest individual in the world. But it is not the personal, but the representative, wealth of these men that makes the group extraordinary. They control corporations whose capitalizations aggregate more than \$9,000,000,000—an amount (if the capitalizations are real values) equal to about the combined public debts of Great Britain, France and the United States. It is this concentration of power which is significant. There were at the time of the last statement 69,955 stockholders in the Steel Corporation. But the control of this corporation is vested in twenty-four directors, and this board of directors is guided by the executive and finance committees, which in turn are largely directed by their chairmen, who are probably selected by the great banker who organized the corporation and in a large part sways its policy.

In 1897 it was estimated that the stocks of the railroads in the United States were held by 950,000 persons. Since then there has been an immense increase in the number of stockholders, while at the same time the concentration of control has gone on rapidly, so that less than a dozen men control the property owned by more than a million of shareholders.

The Pennsylvania Railroad has 34,500 owners, but is controlled by a handful of capitalists, among whom two or three constitute the dominating force.

The manufactures of the United States are owned by 708,623 individuals, the capital represented being \$9,831,486,500, an average of \$12,463 to each person: a very fair division of wealth. But the more important of these companies—those whose output is largest and whose influence on the markets is most powerful—are under the control of a comparatively small number of men.

Of the banking power of the United States, nearly one-half is in New York and the other Eastern States. Of the aggregate of loans made by the national banks on September 15, 1902, amounting to \$3,280,127,480, the

* Quotations by courtesy of *The World's Work*. Copyright, Doubleday, Page & Co.

amount outstanding in the banks of New York, Chicago and St. Louis, the three central reserve cities, was \$877,934,942.

Examinations show that concentration of control of these great city banks has gone so far that a comparatively small group of capitalists possesses the power to regulate the flow of credit in this country. In the last analysis it is found that there are actually only two main influences, and that these are centered in Mr. Morgan and Mr. Rockefeller. It is possible to express in approximate figures the extent of the Morgan influence. It is as follows:

Insurance companies, assets.....	\$1,063,000,000
Banks and trust companies, deposits.....	630,000,000
Railroad capitalization, par value.....	2,447,171,300
United States Steel Corporation, par value.....	1,528,000,000
International Mercantile Marine, par value.....	195,000,000
General Electric, par value.....	45,000,000
International Harvester, par value.....	120,000,000
Other industrials, par value.....	240,000,000
	\$6,268,171,300

In the industrial field, *Moody's Manual* for 1903 contains a list of 233 industrial trusts from which all traction and other kindred companies are excluded. An examination of the most important of these—the 31 companies having a capitalization of \$50,000,000 or over, the aggregate capitalization being more than \$4,000,000,000—reveals a strong family relationship between them. They are not all in control of the same interests, but the capitalists controlling any one or two of them are identified, more or less closely, with several others.

The principal traction companies are under highly centralized control by capitalists identified with interests already mentioned.

There is a wide diffusion of wealth in this country. As a people we are rich, but we have put our wealth into a comparatively few hands to manage for us.

TRUSTS.

A trust (in the economic sense) has been defined by a committee of the New York State Legislature, "a combination to destroy competition and to restrain trade through the stockholders therein combining with other corporations or stockholders to form a joint stock company of corporations, in effect renouncing the powers of several corporations and placing all powers on the boards of trustees." Congressman Charles E. Littlefield states that there are 793 trusts capitalized at over \$14,000,000,000, not including the railroads capitalized at over \$12,000,000,000 more.

The American Almanac (1904) prints a list of 320 trusts, of which 179 are incorporated in New Jersey, 141 in other states. The largest of these are the following:

NAMES.	Common Stock.	Preferred Stock.	Bonds.
United States Steel Corporation.....	\$508,495,200 (2)	\$510,314,100 (7)	\$553,450,000 (5)
Northern Securities.....	400,000,000		
Amalgamated Copper.....	155,000,000 (2)		
International Harvester.....	120,000,000		
Standard Oil.....	97,500,000 (45)		
Pullman.....	74,000,000 (8)		
Consolidated Lake Superior.....	72,286,200	27,400,200	
Rock Island.....	67,855,200	47,497,800 (4)	
United States Leather.....	62,882,300	62,282,300	5,280,000 (6)
International Mercantile Marine.....	60,000,000 (6)	60,000,000	75,000,000 (4½)
American Smelting & Refining.....	50,000,000	50,000,000 (7)	
Corn Products.....	50,000,000	30,000,000 (7)	

Of the 400 largest trusts only ten were organized before 1890.

BREAD EARNERS. PRINCIPAL COUNTRIES.

FROM THE STATISTICAL YEAR BOOK OF THE GERMAN EMPIRE, 1903.

COUNTRIES.	Year	PER CENT OF ¹		
		Men	Women	Together
Austria.....	1890	63.2	47.3	55.1
Hungary.....	1890	62.8	24.9	43.7
Belgium.....	1890	59.8	26.2	43.0
Denmark.....	1890	57.5	21.0	38.8
France.....	1896	63.7	33.0	48.3
Germany.....	1895	61.1	25.0	42.7
Italy.....	1881	66.3	40.2	53.2
Netherlands.....	1899	59.4	16.8	37.8
Norway.....	1891	55.8	23.6	39.0
Sweden.....	1890	54.5	19.7	36.6
Switzerland.....	1888	61.4	29.0	44.8
United Kingdom.....	1891	63.4	26.8	44.5
England and Wales.....	1891	63.2	26.8	44.5
Ireland.....	1891	64.9	26.6	45.5
Scotland.....	1891	62.8	26.7	44.1
United States.....	1900	61.3	14.3	38.4

Note.—For example, 63.2 per cent. of the men in Austria are bread earners and 55.1 per cent of the women. Of both together 55.1 per cent are bread earners.

BREAD EARNERS BY OCCUPATIONS. PRINCIPAL COUNTRIES.

(From the Statistical Year Book of the German Empire, 1903.)

COUNTRIES	Agriculture and Fishery	Manufacturing and Mining	Trade and Commerce ¹	Army and Navy	Public Service and Profession	Domestic and Personal	Other Occupations.
Austria.....	64.3	21.9	6.4	1.4	2.5	3.5
Hungary.....	58.6	12.6	3.3	1.5	2.1	4.917
Belgium.....	22.9	38.2	11.6	1.7	25.6
Denmark.....	27.1	23.9	8.2	1.0	5.3	25.88.7
France.....	44.3	33.6	9.4	2.6	4.8	4.60.7
Germany.....	37.5	37.4	10.6	2.8	3.6	6.12.0
Italy.....	56.7	27.6	3.9	1.0	3.3	3.93.6
Netherlands.....	30.7	33.7	17.2	1.0	5.4	10.31.7
Norway.....	49.6	22.9	11.7	0.5	3.	10.5
Sweden.....	54.0	15.0	5.8	2.3	2.6	13.66.7
Switzerland.....	37.4	40.7	10.7	0.1	3.8	6.21.1
United Kingdom.....	15.1	53.7	10.0	1.0	6.4	13.8
England and Wales.....	10.4	56.9	10.8	1.0	6.2	14.7
Ireland.....	44.0	30.7	4.5	1.5	8.2	11.1
Scotland.....	14.0	58.1	10.2	5.9	11.4
United States.....	35.9	24.1	16.3	0.4	4.3	19.0

¹ Including Hotels and Drinking Houses.

Agriculture and fishing employ the largest proportion of the bread-earners in this order, in Austria, Hungary, Italy, Sweden, Norway, France, Ireland, Germany, United States.

Manufacture and Mining employ the largest proportion of the bread-earners in this order, in Scotland, England and Wales, Switzerland, Belgium, Netherlands.

The largest proportion of bread-earners engaged in *Commerce* are in the Netherlands, United States, Norway, Belgium, England and Wales, Switzerland, Germany.

The largest proportion in the *Army and Navy* are in Germany and France; the smallest number are in Switzerland, the United States, Scotland, and Norway.

WAGES AND HOURS OF LABOR IN LEADING OCCUPATIONS IN THE UNITED STATES AND IN EUROPE., 1890 AND 1903.

(COMPILED FROM THE BULLETIN OF THE U. S. BUREAU OF LABOR FOR JULY, 1904.)

YEAR	WAGES PER HOUR.					HOURS PER WEEK				
	United States	Great Britain	Germany	France	Belgium.	United States	Great Britain	Germany	France	Belgium
BLACKSMITHS.										
1890....	\$0.2677	\$0.1652	\$0.1175	\$0.1474	59.41	54.00	62.00	60.34
1903....	.2962	.1740	.1237	.1629	56.65	53.67	59.90	60.19
BOILER MAKERS.										
1890....	\$0.2594	\$0.1595	\$0.0986	\$0.1417	\$0.0742	59.25	54.00	64.00	63.00	60.00
1903....	.2848	.1719	.1123	.1455	.0753	56.24	53.67	60.00	61.50	60.00
BRICKLAYERS.										
1890....	\$0.4316	\$0.1757	\$0.1103	\$0.1277	\$0.0700	53.22	52.67	59.75	63.00	62.00
1903....	.5471	.2062	.1328	.1325	.0845	47.83	51.83	56.50	63.00	62.00
CARPENTERS.										
1890....	\$0.2713	\$0.1690	\$0.1025	\$0.1544	\$0.0713	55.94	52.67	59.41	60.00	64.87
1903....	.3594	.2028	.1301	.1544	.0712	49.41	50.17	55.30	60.00	64.73
COMPOSITORS.										
1890....	\$0.3980	\$0.1572	\$0.1065	\$0.1207	\$0.0788	53.15	54.33	57.40	60.00	60.00
1903....	.4467	.1795	.1411	.1303	.0955	49.81	50.67	51.08	60.00	54.00
HOD CARRIERS.										
1890....	\$0.2259	\$0.1217	\$0.0675	\$0.0965	\$0.0471	52.78	52.67	59.75	66.00	62.00
1903....	.2863	.1250	.0849	.0965	(4)	47.98	51.83	59.50	63.91	(4)
IRON MOLDERS.										
1890....	\$0.2540	\$0.1678	\$0.1009	\$0.1119	(4)	59.51	54.00	60.00	60.00	(4)
1903....	.3036	.1787	(4)	.1310	.0692	56.80	53.67	(4)	60.00	60.00
LABORERS, GENERAL.										
1890....	\$0.1507	\$0.0948	\$0.0641	\$0.0965	\$0.0524	59.02	54.17	59.98	60.00	63.00
1903....	.1676	.1019	.0797	.0965	.0549	56.13	52.50	56.36	60.00	63.00
MACHINISTS.										
1890....	\$0.2413	\$0.1534	\$0.0973	\$0.1256	59.52	54.00	64.00	61.90
1903....	.2709	.1677	.1310	.1326	56.12	53.67	60.00	61.50
PAINTERS, HOUSE.										
1890....	\$0.2680	\$0.1554	\$0.0934	\$0.1231	\$0.0603	55.23	54.33	56.50	60.00	66.00
1903....	.3450	.1774	.1194	.1255	.0667	48.89	51.00	56.25	60.00	66.00
PLUMBERS.										
1890....	\$0.3464	\$0.1757	\$0.0946	\$0.1501	\$0.0793	54.33	50.00	59.75	63.00	60.00
1903....	.4371	.2027	.1148	.1501	.0784	48.97	49.17	56.68	54.00	60.00
STONE MASONS.										
1890....	\$0.3722	\$0.1774	\$0.1103	\$0.1404	\$0.0700	54.54	51.00	59.75	66.00	62.00
1903....	.4486	.2078	.1328	.1448	.0845	49.54	50.17	56.50	66.00	62.00

(1) The wages and hours of labor shown for the United States are for blacksmiths in the foundry and machine shop industry.

(2) The wages and hours of labor shown for the United States are for carpenters in the building industry.

(3) The wages and hours of labor shown for the United States are for compositors, newspaper.

(4) No data obtained.

(5) The wages and hours of labor shown for the United States are for iron molders in the foundry and machine shop industry.

(6) The wages and hours of labor shown for the United States are for laborers in the building industry.

(7) The wages and hours of labor shown for the United States are for machinists in the foundry and machine shop industry.

AVERAGE WAGES OF FARM LABORERS IN THE UNITED STATES.

FROM BULLETIN OF THE U. S. DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE, "WAGES OF FARM LABOR IN THE UNITED STATES."

YEAR	PER MONTH		PER DAY OF ORDINARY LABOR		PER DAY IN HARVEST	
	Without board	With board	Without board	With board	Without board	With board
1890.....	\$18.33	\$12.45	\$0.92	\$0.68	\$1.30	\$1.02
1902.....	22.14	16.40	1.13	.89	1.53	1.34

NOTE.—In reading the above tables and all statistics of wages a few simple facts must continually be remembered.

General averages as to wages are almost worthless. If in a factory there are eighty men earning each only a dollar a day and 20 especially skilled workers earning each \$6 a day, the average in that factory would be \$2 a day and yet a mere statement of the average would utterly conceal the true facts. In America in almost every trade a few workmen receive very high wages and so American averages of wages, conceal the real wages, often very low, paid to a large share of our workers. Again the worth of wages depends on the cost of living. It is generally thought that wages of late years have risen; yet a recent report of the Bureau of Labor Statistics in the prosperous State of New York, says, for the year ending September 30, 1901: "It therefore seems safe to say that despite the more regular employment and higher wages now enjoyed by the working people, their economic condition is little better than it was four years ago, save that they now work shorter hours." Again, income depends not only on the amount a man receives per day, but the number of days in a year he has work. Yet this simple fact is continually forgotten in comparing wages in different countries and trades. \$1 a day all the year round is better than \$4 a day once a week. Once more statements as to wages are continually vitiated by the bias of opinion of those who interpret or collect the data upon which they are based. Reformers often estimate wages lower than they are, to show the need of reform. Conservatives and supporters of whatever political administration is in power and this unfortunately includes almost all official statisticians are tempted to statements as roseate as possible. The belief that American wages have steadily risen in recent years is largely based on the Aldrich Senate Report of 1893. Yet this report is believed by many scholars to be utterly unreliable. (See "Social Progress," 1904, p. 77.)

Dr. Spahr, in his "Present Distribution of Wealth," argues the utter worthlessness of its conclusions, and says: "To cut short the criticism, in order to get at the facts reported, it is necessary to throw away the work done by the committee's experts and return to the original reports made by the employers."

Nevertheless these official statistics are undoubtedly the best general statistics there are.

For the cost of living the U. S. Bureau of Labor gives the tables on the opposite page.

Between 1850 and 1900, while population was increasing three and one-half-times, farm animals increased in value six times, wool five times, the product of manufactures twelve times, pig iron production twenty-five times, railway mileage twenty-one times, and railway capital and activities in a far higher ratio. And in the decade ending with 1900, the horse-power of our machinery increased 88 per cent.—*The World's Work*, February, 1905.

INCOME AND EXPENDITURE.

GEOGRAPHICAL DIVISION AND GENERAL NATIVITY OF HEAD OF FAMILY	FAMILIES		Total income per family	AVERAGE EXPENDITURE OF FAMILIES HAVING AN EXPENDITURE FOR—						Total expenditure per family	Per cent of total income expended
	Total	Average size		Rent-	Fuel	Lighting	Clothing	Food	Other purposes		
N. Atlantic States:			(\$)	(\$)	(\$)	(\$)	(\$)	(\$)	(\$)	(\$)	
Native.....	7,359	4.53	748.81	130.73	30.66	7.79	93.08	306.31	135.47	696.44	93.01
Foreign.....	6,423	5.11	763.15	123.93	30.33	8.17	94.20	327.49	136.27	713.01	93.43
Total.....	13,782	4.80	755.49	127.63	30.51	7.97	93.60	316.18	135.84	704.16	93.21
S. Atlantic States:											
Native.....	1,995	5.11	683.06	97.95	30.54	6.12	86.08	289.09	142.42	641.80	93.96
Foreign.....	198	5.68	768.75	107.20	31.12	6.85	103.11	354.07	152.11	734.55	95.55
Total.....	2,193	5.16	690.80	98.68	30.60	6.19	87.62	294.96	143.30	650.18	94.12
N. Central States:											
Native.....	4,227	4.68	756.82	107.62	30.48	7.50	96.81	308.09	171.28	713.63	94.29
Foreign.....	3,113	5.39	744.55	100.23	36.30	7.45	99.36	328.90	149.28	702.42	94.34
Total.....	7,340	4.98	751.62	105.02	32.95	7.48	97.89	316.92	161.95	708.88	94.31
S. Central States:											
Native.....	1,027	5.21	670.64	94.21	23.86	4.96	87.11	278.33	153.45	635.74	94.80
Foreign.....	194	5.26	700.73	103.19	24.95	5.05	93.98	294.76	172.19	665.33	94.95
Total.....	1,221	5.22	675.42	95.38	24.04	4.97	88.20	280.94	156.43	640.44	94.82
Western States:											
Native.....	553	3.96	883.14	148.86	34.69	8.07	118.21	311.18	142.30	741.75	83.99
Foreign.....	351	4.42	883.78	144.78	35.09	8.25	121.95	327.77	152.20	748.59	84.70
Total.....	904	4.14	883.39	147.48	34.84	8.14	119.66	317.62	146.14	744.41	84.27

HUSBANDS AND WIVES AT WORK IN THE UNITED STATES.

FROM BULLETIN OF THE BUREAU OF LABOR, SEPTEMBER, 1904.

NATIVITY	Average income of husbands	Average income of wives	NATIVITY	Average income of husbands	Average income of wives
United States.....	\$637.22	\$122.43	Norway.....	\$652.55	\$213.29
Austria-Hungary.....	543.94	157.00	Russia.....	535.55	134.99
Canada.....	620.02	164.83	Scotland.....	682.20	119.63
Denmark.....	671.01	221.67	Sweden.....	651.23	130.35
England.....	673.40	135.03	Switzerland.....	639.89	160.40
France.....	596.21	164.09	Wales.....	615.02	160.00
Germany.....	588.11	126.74	Other foreign.....	602.74	170.70
Ireland.....	574.33	139.14	Total foreign.....	597.19	138.32
Italy.....	508.67	119.45	United States and foreign	621.12	128.52
Netherlands.....	518.80	520.00			

RELATIVE RETAIL PRICES OF FOOD.

(Average price for 1890 to 98=100.)

YEAR	Beef, fresh	Butter	Eggs	Flour, wheat	Lard	Pork fresh	Pork, salt, bacon	Pork, salt, ham	Potatoes, Irish	Sugar
1890.....	99.2	99.2	100.6	109.7	98.2	97.0	95.8	98.7	109.3	118.6
1895.....	98.9	97.0	99.3	89.0	100.1	99.7	99.4	98.8	91.8	91.8
1900.....	106.5	101.4	99.9	94.3	104.4	107.7	109.7	105.3	93.5	104.9
1901.....	110.9	103.2	105.7	94.4	118.1	117.9	121.0	110.2	116.8	103.0
1902.....	118.6	111.5	119.1	94.9	134.3	128.3	135.6	119.4	117.0	96.0
1903.....	111.2	110.6	125.9	101.4	126.5	127.1	139.5	121.3	115.0	96.3

SOCIAL PROGRESS

PER CENT. OF THE EXPENDITURE.

ITEM	Per cent.	ITEM	Per cent
Food.....	42.54	Religious purposes.....	.99
Rent.....	12.95	Charity.....	0.31
Principal and interest on mortgage on home.....	1.58	Furniture and utensils.....	3.42
Fuel.....	4.19	Books and newspapers.....	1.09
Lighting.....	1.06	Amusements and vacation.....	1.60
Clothing.....	14.04	Intoxicating liquors.....	1.62
Taxes.....	.75	Tobacco.....	1.42
Insurance.....	2.73	Sickness and death.....	2.67
Labor and other organization fees.....	1.17	Other purposes.....	5.87
			100.00

RELATIVE MOVEMENTS OF WAGES AND WHOLESALE PRICES.

YEAR	Wholesale Prices ¹	City Wages (in gold) 25 Occupations ²	Wages, 192 Occupations ³	Wages of Farm Laborers (gold) per Month Without Board ⁴
1869.....	104.8
1870.....	84.64
1871.....	94.00
1872.....	96.26
1873.....	92.13
1874.....	90.46
1875.....	88.11	92.9
1876.....	85.65
1877.....	88.21
1878.....	90.66
1879.....	91.12	88.3
1880.....	91.94
1881.....	94.59
1882.....	96.16	101.7
1883.....	97.05
1884.....	97.83
1885.....	97.15	96.6
1886.....	97.15
1887.....	97.93
1888.....	98.52	98.0
1889.....	98.82
1890.....	99.31	98.6
1891.....	95	100.00	100.00	100.0
1892.....	90	100.59	100.30
1893.....	90	99.94	99.32	102.6
1894.....	82	97.98	98.06	95.4
1895.....	81	97.19	97.88	95.1
1896.....	77	96.60	97.93
1897.....	73	96.11	98.96
1898.....	79	95.62	98.79	104.2
1899.....	77	101.54	108.7
1900.....	90	103.43
1901.....	88

¹Bureau of Economic Research. ²Bulletin, September, 1898. ³Bulletin, July, 1900 Dept. of Agriculture, 22, Mis. Series, 1901.

Robert Hunter in his study of *Poverty* says; "It is hardly to be doubted that the mass of unskilled workers in the North receive less than \$450 a year." One hundred and fifty thousand track hands receive from 47½ cents in the South to \$1.25 in the North. Eleven per cent. of the male cotton workers over 16, in New England, received in 1900 less than \$6 a week.

STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS IN THE U. S. FROM 1881 TO 1900.

STRIKES.
(From the U. S. Bulletin of Labor, Sept., 1904.)

YEAR	Number of strikes	Establishments involved	Employees thrown out of Work	Average Duration (days)	Wage loss of Employees	Assistance to Employees by Labor Organizations	Loss of Employers
1881.....	471	2,928	129,521	12.8	\$3,372,578	\$287,999	\$1,919,483
1882.....	454	2,105	154,671	21.9	9,864,228	734,339	4,269,094
1883.....	478	2,759	149,763	20.6	6,274,480	461,233	4,696,027
1884.....	443	2,367	147,054	30.5	7,666,717	407,871	3,393,073
1885.....	645	2,284	242,705	30.1	10,663,248	465,827	4,388,893
1886.....	1,432	10,053	508,044	23.4	14,992,453	1,122,130	12,357,808
1887.....	1,436	6,589	379,676	20.9	16,560,534	1,121,554	6,698,495
1888.....	906	3,506	147,704	20.3	6,377,749	1,752,668	6,509,017
1889.....	1,075	3,786	249,559	26.2	10,409,686	592,017	2,936,752
1890.....	1,833	9,424	351,944	24.2	13,875,338	910,285	5,135,404
1891.....	1,717	8,116	298,939	34.9	14,801,505	1,132,557	6,176,688
1892.....	1,298	5,540	206,671	23.4	10,772,622	833,874	5,145,691
1893.....	1,305	4,555	265,914	20.6	9,938,048	563,183	3,406,195
1894.....	1,349	8,196	660,425	32.4	37,145,532	931,052	18,982,129
1895.....	1,215	6,973	392,403	20.5	13,044,830	559,165	5,072,282
1896.....	1,026	5,462	241,170	22.0	11,098,207	462,165	5,304,235
1897.....	1,078	8,492	408,391	27.4	17,468,904	721,164	4,868,687
1898.....	1,056	3,809	*249,002	22.5	10,037,284	585,228	4,596,462
1899.....	1,797	11,317	417,072	15.2	15,157,965	1,096,030	7,443,407
1900.....	1,779	9,248	505,066	23.1	18,341,570	1,434,452	9,431,299
Total.....	22,793	117,509	*6,105,694	23.8	257,863,478	16,174,793	122,731,121

*Not including the number in 33 establishments for which data were not obtainable.

RESULTS OF STRIKES ORDERED BY LABOR ORGANIZATIONS AND NOT SO ORDERED.

YEAR	Number of strikes ordered by labor organizations	Per cent of establishments in which strikes ordered by labor organizations—			Number of strikes not ordered by labor organizations	Per cent of establishments in which strikes not ordered by labor organizations—		
		Succeeded	Succeeded partly	Failed		Succeeded	Succeeded partly	Failed
1881.....	222	65.61	6.46	27.93	249	48.25	8.67	43.08
1882.....	218	56.38	9.56	34.06	236	44.75	3.76	51.49
1883.....	271	64.26	18.39	17.35	207	26.25	4.07	69.68
1884.....	239	55.79	3.26	40.95	204	30.79	6.90	62.31
1885.....	361	63.70	10.50	25.80	284	26.20	7.08	66.72
1886.....	760	33.49	20.46	46.05	672	41.65	7.38	50.97
1887.....	952	48.38	7.19	44.43	483	26.96	7.24	65.80
1888.....	616	56.17	4.99	38.84	288	25.00	8.36	66.14
1889.....	724	45.61	21.37	33.02	351	49.93	9.26	40.81
1890.....	1,306	53.99	10.17	35.84	525	39.86	8.45	51.69
1891.....	1,284	38.46	8.10	53.44	432	36.76	11.68	51.56
1892.....	918	39.33	8.75	51.92	380	39.19	8.16	52.65
1893.....	906	53.94	10.89	35.17	399	28.42	6.19	65.39
1894.....	847	37.35	13.67	48.98	501	43.94	12.12	43.94
1895.....	658	59.25	10.05	30.70	555	27.21	9.18	63.61
1896.....	662	62.47	6.55	30.98	363	29.93	15.69	54.38
1897.....	596	59.67	29.51	10.82	482	30.83	12.54	56.63
1898.....	638	69.72	6.15	24.13	418	33.96	7.64	58.40
1899.....	1,115	76.33	14.19	9.48	682	36.56	14.92	48.52
1900.....	1,164	48.06	21.95	29.99	615	29.94	7.03	63.03
Total.....	14,457	52.86	13.60	33.54	8,326	35.56	9.05	55.39

LOCKOUTS.

YEAR	Number of lockouts	Establishments involved	Employees thrown out of Work	Average duration (days)	Wage loss of Employees	Assistance to Employees by Labor Organizations	Loss of Employers
1881.....	6	9	655	32.2	\$18,519	\$3,150	\$6,960
1882.....	22	42	4,131,	105.0	466,345	47,668	112,382
1883.....	28	117	20,512	57.5	1,069,212	102,253	297,097
1884.....	42	354	18,121	41.4	1,421,410	314,027	640,847
1885.....	50	183	15,424	27.1	901,173	89,488	455,477
1886.....	140	1,509	101,980	39.1	4,281,058	549,452	1,949,498
1887.....	67	1,281	59,630	49.8	4,233,700	155,846	2,918,736
1888.....	40	180	15,176	74.9	1,100,057	85,931	1,217,199
1889.....	36	132	10,731	57.5	1,379,722	115,389	307,125
1890.....	64	324	21,555	73.9	957,966	77,210	486,258
1891.....	69	546	31,014	37.8	883,709	50,195	616,888
1892.....	61	716	32,014	72.0	2,856,013	537,684	1,695,080
1893.....	70	305	21,842	34.7	6,659,401	364,268	1,034,420
1894.....	55	875	29,619	39.7	2,022,769	160,244	982,584
1895.....	40	370	14,785	31.6	791,703	67,701	584,155
1896.....	40	51	7,668	65.1	690,945	61,355	357,535
1897.....	32	171	7,763	38.6	583,606	47,326	298,044
1898.....	42	164	14,217	48.8	880,461	47,098	239,403
1899.....	41	323	14,817	37.5	1,485,174	126,957	379,365
1900.....	60	2,281	62,653	265.1	16,136,802	448,219	5,447,930
Total.....	1,005	9,933	504,307	97.1	48,819,745	3,451,461	19,927,983

STATISTICS OF UNEMPLOYMENT.

According to the census of 1900 (Vol. Occupations, p. CCXXVI), the percentage of those engaged in gainful occupations who were unemployed during some portion of the year was for the whole country 22.3. In 1890 it was only 15.1, but the census thinks the facts in 1890 were not adequately studied. This is for all trades. In agriculture the percentage was 20.7; trade and transportation only 10.5, but in professional service it was 26.3; in manufacturing and mechanical pursuits it was 27.2 and in domestic and personal service it was 28.1. Of the males unemployed, 49.6 per cent. were unemployed from 1 to 3 months; 39.6 per cent. from 4 to 6 months, and 10.8 per cent. from 7 to 12 months, but the census considers these figures open to some doubt, and states that they state only the periods when men were unemployed at their ordinary occupation, making no allowance for smaller jobs taken more or less temporarily. In Massachusetts, in 1895, the census of that year showed that 27 per cent. of her workmen were unemployed during the year. In towns like Haverhill, New Bedford and Fall River, the percentage rose to from 39 to 62 per cent. Dr. Peter Roberts, investigating the anthracite collieries soon after the great strike, found that even then the collieries did not average more than two-thirds time. According to the New York Department of Labor (*Bulletin* September, 1903) in large portions of the year from 20 to 30 per cent. of the people are in enforced idleness. Among the unskilled Italians in Chicago a Federal report (Ninth Special Report, p. 29,) puts the percentage of the unemployed at 56.97.

"Modern life," says Mr. John Hobson, "has no more tragical figure than the gaunt, hungry laborer wandering about the crowded centres of industry and wealth, begging in vain for permission to share in that industry and to contribute to that wealth; asking in return, not the comforts and luxuries of civilized life, but the rough food and shelter for himself and family which would be practically secured to him in the rudest form of savage society." ("Problems of Poverty," p. 17.)

ACCIDENTS TO LIFE AND LIMB.

This is a matter of increasing importance, because modern civilization is multiplying dangers to human life. We are becoming more and more an industrial people. Machinery is coming more and more into use. We are increasingly laying our burdens on the backs of natural forces; and, like unwilling slaves, unless closely watched, they revolt and smite and slay us. We are discovering more powerful explosives. We are making greater use of chemicals with noxious gases. We are erecting higher buildings. We are traveling at greater speed. We are making new applications of electricity with its subtle dangers. We are daily inventing new perils to life and limb, of which our fathers never dreamed.

With reference to State regulations, our chief industries fall into four great divisions; viz., railroading, mining, manufacturing, and building. Of the first and second divisions we have somewhat full though not complete statistics concerning accidents; of the third very unsatisfactory statistics; and of the fourth, none at all.

Five of our States have enacted laws providing against accidents in the building and construction trades, but they do not require the systematic return of accidents in building. We have, therefore, no data on which to base an estimate of the number of accidents in this great division of industry. All that can be said is that they are numerous.

Nine States require factory operators to report accidents suffered by their employees, but only inadequate data have been afforded for the collection of complete and detailed statistics. In 1899, the New York Bureau of Labor attempted to gain as complete a record as possible of all accidents for three months, in industries employing about one-half of the factory workers of the State. During this period confusedly incomplete returns showed 1,822 accidents. On this basis all the factories in the State would in twelve months show 14,576 accidents. But these figures are undoubtedly far below the facts. Some trades not particularly dangerous reported 44 accidents for every thousand employees, while extra hazardous trades reported only 16 to a thousand employees. As there is a disposition to conceal accidents, it is safe to assume that no employer reported more than actually occurred, so that the Commissioner of Labor reasonably inferred 44 to a thousand to be more nearly correct than 16 to a thousand.

If now we cut these figures in two in the middle and assume that there are only 22 accidents to a thousand employees in our factories, they will give a total for the whole country of more than 116,000 employees killed or injured annually in this great division of industry.

Various perils beset the coal miner. In the anthracite region of Pennsylvania during the past 75 years there have been about 12,000 miners killed and over 28,000 injured. John Mitchell tells us that in these anthracite mines alone two miners are killed and five injured for every working day in the year.

The following table shows the number of accidents per 1,000 employees in different States and countries:

ACCIDENTS PER 1,000 EMPLOYEES.

STATES	1880-89	1890-99	HIGHEST	LOWEST
Pennsylvania, Anthracite	3.21	3.18	3.59 (1881)	2.71 (1886)
Pennsylvania, Bituminous	1.74	2.08	3.18 (1891)	1.39 (1881)
Ohio	1.53	1.60	2.10 (1886)	1.09 (1882)
Illinois*	2.19*	2.07	5.60 (1883)	1.40 (1889)
Great Britain	2.01	1.48	2.72 (1880)	1.03 (1898)
New South Wales	3.46	1.43	11.58 (1887)	0.46 (1881)

*For 1883-1889.

The Interstate Commerce Commission collects statistics of railway accidents, but officials do not always make complete returns of them.

The latest statistics published by the Commission are for the year ending June 30, 1903. During that year there were 9,840 persons killed on the railways of the United States, and 76,553 injured, making a total of 86,393 casualties. The daily average for the year was 26.9 killed and 209.7 injured.

During the seven years from 1897-1903 inclusive, there was a steady increase in the number of casualties. The total number of killed during that period was 55,167—as if a community as large as Salt Lake City had been wiped out by a sudden and terrible catastrophe—while 367,107 were injured—as if every man, woman and child in Buffalo had been maimed or otherwise hurt.

If casualties continue to increase at the same rate for the seven succeeding years, from 1904 to 1910 inclusive, there will be 91,568 killed and 874,122 injured. That is, at this rate there are upwards of 90,000 people in the United States under sentence of death, to be executed on the railway before the close of 1910, and a larger number are doomed to be maimed or otherwise injured than the entire population of the District of Columbia, Montana, Arizona, Wyoming, Nevada and Alaska.

A comparison of the American and European railway records shows how large a proportion of our accidents are needless. In 1890 our railways killed one person for every 306 employees, while the roads of Germany killed only one for every 750, and those of Austria-Hungary only one for every 1,067. The same year American roads injured one person for every 33 employees, German roads one for every 169 and Austrian one for every 292. That is, of a given number of employees, we killed more than twice as many as Germany, and more than three times as many as Austria-Hungary; we also injured five times as many as Germany and nine times as many as Austria-Hungary.

Needless slaughter is criminal slaughter. Industrial homicide is being committed every hour of the day; and the employer who does not provide all practicable means for safeguarding life and limb is *particeps criminis*.

YEAR	Number of employees for one—		Number of train men for one—		Number of passengers for one—	
	Killed	Injured	Killed	Injured	Killed	Injured
1903.	364	22	123	10	1,957,441	84,424
1902.	401	24	135	10	1,883,706	97,244
1901.	400	26	136	13	2,153,469	121,748
1900.	399	26	137	11	2,316,648	139,740
1899.	420	27	155	11	2,389,023	151,998
1898.	447	28	150	11	2,267,250	170,141
1897.	486	30	165	12	2,204,708	175,115
1896.	444	28	152	10	2,827,474	178,132
1895.	433	31	155	11	2,984,832	213,651
1894.	428	33	156	12	1,668,791	178,210
1893.	320	28	115	10	1,985,153	183,822

DANGEROUS TRADES.

Our American legislatures seem almost to have ignored a branch of factory legislation considered elsewhere to be of the utmost importance. While most of the countries of Europe, especially England, have considered the special regulations of dangerous trades as a necessity of modern industry, in only one case have the American States enacted special laws on the subject. This is the law with reference to emery wheels, that has been adopted by seven of our States.

LABOR LEGISLATION.

COMPILED FROM THE REPORT BY G. A. WEBER IN THE U. S. BULLETIN OF LABOR
FOR SEPTEMBER, 1904.

Twenty-seven States provide inspectors of factories and workshops; in 15 States combining their work with the bureaus of labor (notably New York).

What are usually known as factory acts relate to the protection of the health of employees, such as regulations requiring the proper ventilation, lighting, and heating of factories and workshops against overcrowding, exposed machinery, etc., and the conditions for women and children.

Twelve States, namely, Connecticut, Illinois, Indiana, Maryland, Massachusetts, Michigan, Missouri, New Jersey, New York, Ohio, Pennsylvania, and Wisconsin, have enacted laws regulating sweat shops.

These laws usually prohibit the manufacture, repair, alteration, or finishing of apparel for wear or adornment, and the manufacture of purses, cigars, cigarettes, or umbrellas in rooms or apartments in tenements or dwelling houses except under certain prescribed conditions. In Massachusetts the law relates only to wearing apparel. The factory inspectors are required to visit and inspect the sanitary conditions. Penalties of from \$20 to \$500 or imprisonment from 10 days to 1 year are affixed. Eleven States have bakeshop laws; 8 States regulate laundries; many have laws for the building trade; 34 States and Territories have laws for workers in mines; 12 States prohibit the employment of women in mines, and 27 that of children.

The railway labor laws enacted by the various States and by the Federal Government have, with few exceptions, the object of protecting the health and safety and the rights of employees, and of reducing to a minimum the liability of the traveling public to accidents and inconvenience on account of employees. They may be considered under five groups, namely: Law (1) regulating the employment of certain classes of persons, (2) prohibiting certain acts of railway employees, (3) protecting the rights of railway employees, (4) requiring certain mechanical equipment on railways for the protection of the health and safety of employees, (5) concerning the reporting and investigating of accidents to employees.

LEGAL WORKING DAYS.

The following 10 States have passed laws declaring that eight hours shall be regarded a legal day's work unless otherwise agreed: California, Connecticut, Illinois, Indiana, Missouri, Montana, New York, Ohio, Pennsylvania, and Wisconsin. The following 7 States fix the legal working day at 10 hours: Florida, Maine, Michigan, Minnesota, Nebraska, New Hampshire, and Rhode Island. In New Jersey a week's work is defined as consisting of 55 hours.

In some States these laws apply to all industries, while in others exceptions are made in the case of persons engaged in agricultural or domestic labor. In a few cases the statutes do not apply to persons engaged by the week, month, or year.

All States and Territories except Arizona, California, Idaho, Nevada, and the Philippine Islands have laws prohibiting the employment of labor on Sundays. In California, however, it is a misdemeanor for any employer to cause his employees to work more than six days in seven except in cases of emergency.

Eighteen States and 1 Territory limit the hours per day for women in manufacturing, mechanical, or mercantile establishments. Five States prohibit the employment of women at night

LICENSED OCCUPATIONS.

The Federal Government and 37 States and Territories have statutory provisions providing the examination and licensing of persons practising trades other than those in the class of higher professions. These occupations are those of barbers, horseshoers, elevator operators, plumbers, stationary firemen, steam engineers, telegraph operators on railroads, certain classes of mine workers, and steam and street railroad employees.

EMPLOYERS' LIABILITY.

The legislation enacted in the various States with regard to the liability of employers for injuries sustained by employees may be grouped as follows: (1) Statutes declaratory of the common-law doctrine with regard to the liability of employers, their duty toward employees, etc.; (2) statutes modifying the fellow-servants doctrine by adopting the theory (a) that all superior employees are vice-principals as regards their subordinates, and (b) that co-service is not a bar to an action for injuries caused by the negligence of an employee in a different department; (3) statutes by which employers have been, either entirely or in regard to certain classes of injuries, deprived of the protection afforded by the defense of common employment; (4) statutes holding employers liable in damages for injuries to employees caused by reason of employers' failure to comply with specific provisions of law concerning condition of ways, machinery, appliances, and plants, hours of labor, other statutory regulations for the protection and safety of employees; (5) statutes concerning the right to recover damages for injuries resulting in death; (6) statutes concerning accident insurance, relief associations, etc.

The States of California, Montana, North Dakota, and South Dakota have enacted statutes stating the common-law doctrine by declaring employers liable for injuries sustained by employers in consequence of the discharge of duty, or inobedience to the employers' directions, or on account of the want of ordinary care on the part of the employers, exceptions being made in the case of losses suffered in consequence of the ordinary risks of business or of the negligence of fellow-servants.

Statutes passed in Connecticut and in Minnesota define the term "vice-principal," and require employers to provide their employees with a safe place to work and to furnish reasonably safe tools, machinery, etc.

Statutes providing that persons who are in a position to give orders or directions, or who have supervision over work, are vice-principals, have been enacted in Arkansas, Connecticut, Indiana, Massachusetts, Minnesota, Mississippi, Missouri, Montana, New York, Ohio, Oregon, Porto Rico, South Carolina, Texas, Utah, and Virginia.

Statutes by which employers have been either entirely or in regard to certain classes of injuries deprived of the protection afforded by the defence of common employment have been enacted in 13 States and Territories.

Twenty-eight States and Territories have statutes and one State has a constitutional provision holding employers liable in damages for injuries sustained by employees by reason of the failure of employers to comply with specific provisions of law concerning condition of ways, machinery, appliances, plants, etc., hours of labor, or other statutory regulations designed for the protection and safety of employees.

BOYCOTTING.

Five States, namely, Alabama, Colorado, Illinois, Indiana, and Texas—have statutes applying expressly to boycotting. Acts usually committed by persons engaged in boycotting are, however, prohibited in other States and are considered either under the head of conspiracy, intimidation, or interference with employment.

BLACKLISTING.

Blacklisting is prohibited by statute in Alabama, Colorado, Connecticut, Florida, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Minnesota, Missouri, Montana, Nevada, North Dakota, Oklahoma, Oregon, Texas, Utah, Virginia, Washington, and Wisconsin. In the case of common carriers engaged in interstate commerce the Federal law on the arbitration of labor disputes makes it a misdemeanor for an employer to attempt or conspire to prevent an employee from obtaining employment after quitting his service.

BOARDS OF ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION.

Twenty-two States and the Federal Government have enacted laws concerning the creation of boards of arbitration and conciliation for the settlement of disputes between employers and employees. Wyoming has a constitutional provision directing the legislature to establish courts of arbitration for labor disputes, but no legislation to this effect has been enacted.

The Federal statute of June 1, 1898, which is now in force, applies only to common carriers engaged in interstate commerce and their employees.

CHILD LABOR.

BY FLORENCE KELLEY, SECRETARY OF THE NATIONAL CONSUMERS' LEAGUE.

Child labor exists in the United States on a large scale and increases steadily and rapidly in spite of the efforts of the trade unions and of recently formed philanthropic committees to restrict it and to mitigate the evils which attend it. In several important manufacturing States, there is either no legislation on the subject (as in Georgia and Delaware), or legislation which cannot be enforced (as in Louisiana). In other important States the laws are so drawn as to permit serious evils in spite of vigorous prosecution of offending employers by the factory inspectors. This is conspicuously true of Pennsylvania and New Jersey. In Pennsylvania no law is violated when little girls thirteen years of age work all night in mills. This is not only ruinous to their health, but places them at the mercy of men and boys with whom they spend the midnight hour which corresponds to the noon dinner hour of the dayworkers. Many hundreds of little girls are employed under these conditions in the mills in Pennsylvania.

In Pennsylvania, boys aged thirteen years, and in New Jersey boys aged fourteen years, are legally employed through the night in glass works. The legislatures of both States refused, at their last sessions, to enact statutes prohibiting night work for children under sixteen years of age. The little boys thus employed in the glass works, are not apprentices learning a skilled trade; they fetch and carry for the blowers and are known in some places as the "blowers' dogs." They suffer greatly from burns received when they are too sleepy to see and direct their course from the melting-ovens to the cooling-ovens, and collide with each other, and with the hot glass and asbestos carriers almost as hot as the glass itself. There is machinery on the market which would replace at least one-third of the children now employed in the glass industry if it were generally used. But it is cheaper to employ children than to make the initial expenditure for installing the machinery. In Illinois and Ohio it is illegal to employ children under sixteen years of age after 7 P.M., but in New Jersey, Pennsylvania and Indiana the glass manufacturers have successfully prevented the enactment of such a measure.

Formerly Massachusetts was in advance of all the States in her care of her working children; the laws of Massachusetts are, however, now excelled by those of Illinois, Colorado, and New York. In Massachusetts, a girl arriving, on her

fourteenth birthday, from Syria, Russia, Italy, French Canada, or any other foreign country may begin at once to work in a cotton mill, provided only that she attend a night school when it is in session. This means that large numbers of such illiterate immigrant boys and girls work ten and a half hours in the heat and din of the cotton mills and then doze through two hours in the evening schools. It is so easy for children of foreign birth to obtain false proof of their age that children manifestly not more than twelve years old may be found in the night schools under this belated law. It is sometimes urged, in extenuation of the Massachusetts law, that the competition of Georgia manufacturers prevents further progress in Massachusetts. The sinister aspect of this is that a large part of the capital invested in cotton mills in Georgia is owned by the same person who own stock in mills in Massachusetts. Thus they make their own low standard in the Southern mills the excuse for lowering the standard in New England.

In all the great cities Christmas brings cruel overwork for children employed in retail trades, not only in stores, but as messenger, delivery, and telegraph boys. Even the development of the pneumatic cash-carrier has not freed the children, though they may no longer be known as cash boys and cash girls, Under the names inspectors, wrappers, change-makers, bundle-girls, stock girls, wagon boys, and junior clerks, thousands of children work in the stores.

When the hours of labor have been restricted by law, the Christmas season has frequently been exempted and young children have been kept at work until eleven o'clock, midnight, and in some cases far into the early morning hours. This particular form of cruelty is directly due to the shopping public which crowds the buying of gifts into the fortnight before Christmas, likes the "rush" and insists upon having all goods delivered promptly, no matter what fatigue and exhaustion of young boys and girls may be caused thereby. Very slowly the States, one after another, are prohibiting night work for children even at Christmas, but much remains to be done to secure a uniform prohibition of their work after 7 P.M., and an effective enforcement of the laws already upon the statute books.

WOMEN'S WAGES.

IN 1900 IN 87 INDUSTRIES IN MASSACHUSETTS.

- 17 per cent. of the grown women and 4 per cent. of the grown men received under \$5 a week.
- 16 per cent. of the grown women and 4 per cent. of the grown men received \$5 to \$6 a week.
- 20 per cent. of the grown women and 7 per cent. of the grown men received \$6 to \$7 a week.
- 15 per cent. of the grown women and 10 per cent. of the grown men received \$7 to \$8 a week.
- 12 per cent. of the grown women and 14 per cent. of the grown men received \$8 to \$9 a week.
- 9 per cent. of the grown women and 16 per cent. of the grown men received \$9 to \$10 a week.
- 7 per cent. of the grown women and 18 per cent. of the grown men received \$10 to \$12 a week.
- 3 per cent. of the grown women and 14 per cent. of the grown men received \$12 to \$15 a week.
- 1 per cent. of the grown women and 4 per cent. of the grown men received \$15 to \$20 a week.

According to an Ohio report for 1901, 6,920 women in the three largest cities earned \$4.83 a week, worked 57½ hours, paid \$2.44 for board and lodging, and saved 14 cents, 1,606 people depending on them for support. Quoted in "Getting a Living," p 480.

The general pay of saleswomen in department stores is less than \$5 a week. Cf. *American Journal of Sociology*, May, 1899, p. 721.

CHILD LABOR LEGISLATION.

AGE LIMIT.

Children may not be employed under the age of 14 in factories and stores in twelve States. Ten more forbid children under 14 in factories only.

Twenty-four forbid their employment underground in mines. Several of the States, however, make dangerous exceptions. Some allow children over 12 "if necessarily employed" or if allowed for poverty by a county judge; or if illiterate (Texas) or in vacation time, or if they present a certificate of having attended school 20 weeks. Pennsylvania forbids them under 16 in all mines. Fourteen States forbid employment of children under 14 in school hours. New Hampshire, Montana, and Ohio forbid this to the age of 16, but to this law there are dangerous exceptions. Pennsylvania and Rhode Island forbid employment under 13. Fifteen States forbid it—some in mines only, some in factories and mines, some in mines, stores and factories,—under the age of 12. One State puts the age limit at 10. South Carolina raises the age to 11, May 1, 1904, and to 12 May 1, 1905, except children "necessarily employed." Arizona, Delaware, District of Columbia, Georgia, Hawaii, Idaho, Indian Territory, Maryland (applying to 20 counties, all canneries, and all children of widowed mothers and disabled fathers), Nevada, New Mexico, Oklahoma, South Carolina (applying in June, July, and August to all children who have attended school 4 months in the year), have no age limit.

SCHOOL ATTENDANCE.

Twelve States compel children to attend school to the age of 16, unless employed, though there are exemptions and exceptions in many States. Massachusetts allows children over 14 to work, provided they attend night schools; twenty-six States compel attendance to the age of 14, though several States, especially in the South, require only 12 weeks of schooling. Pennsylvania and Rhode Island put the age at 13, and at 16 and 15 respectively, unless employed. Maryland puts the age at 12. Fourteen States almost wholly in the South have no attendance laws. Many States forbid employment to the age of 16 in most cases unless the children can read and write or attend night schools. Twenty-three, however, have no educational test.

NIGHT WORK.

Night work is prohibited for children in many States during specified hours, usually 7 P.M. to 6 A.M. In Massachusetts it is between 10 P.M. and 6 A.M. for women and minors. Several States do not prohibit night work, but limit the employment of children to a specified number of hours in the day or week. Only 17 have laws on the subject.

SPECIAL EXEMPTIONS.

Maryland allows exemptions from these laws in favor of her canning industry. Several States, including New York, make exemptions at Christmas time.

Until 1903, the Massachusetts law was thought to be the best. But Illinois and New York have improved on the Massachusetts laws in several points. For full schedules regarding age-limit, hours of labor, proof of age, compulsory education, dangerous occupations, exemptions and enforcement of the laws, and for a standard child-labor law see the "Hand Book of Child Labor Legislation for 1905," from which the above is condensed, published by the National Consumers League, 105 E. 22d Street, New York.

SOCIAL PROGRESS

CHILD LABOR IN THE UNITED STATES.

(From Special Report of the Twelfth Census.)

OCCUPATIONS	10 TO 15 YEARS		
	Total	Males	Females
All occupations.	1,752,187	1,266,050	486,137
Agricultural pursuits.	1,062,251	854,957	207,294
Agricultural laborers	1,054,700	847,884	206,816
Dairymen and dairywomen	301	267	34
Lumbermen and raftsmen	571	570	1
Stockraisers, herders, and drovers	4,247	3,903	344
Turpentine farmers and laborers	1,201	1,131	70
Woodchoppers.	1,133	1,123	10
Other agricultural pursuits.	98	79	19
Professional service.	2,956	1,849	1,107
Actors, professional showmen, etc.	617	420	197
Architects, designers, draftsmen, etc.	147	134	13
Artists and teachers of art.	225	111	114
Electricians.	550	550
Engineers (civil) and surveyors	60	60
Musicians and teachers of music.	712	363	349
Teachers in colleges, etc.	453	39	414
Other professional service.	192	172	20
Domestic and personal service.	280,143	137,951	142,192
Barbers and hairdressers.	1,656	1,522	134
Bartenders	367	367
Janitors and sextons	218	195	23
Laborers (not specified)	128,890	111,814	17,076
Launderers and laundresses	7,017	665	6,352
Saloon keepers
Servants and waiters	138,284	19,961	118,323
Watchmen, policemen, firemen, etc.	151	151
Other domestic and personal service.	3,560	3,276	284
Trade and transportation.	122,507	100,313	22,194
Agents.	945	857	88
Boatmen and sailors	497	494	3
Bookkeepers and accountants	2,169	911	1,258
Clerks and copyists	22,034	17,788	4,246
Draymen, hackmen, teamsters, etc.	11,582	11,548	34
Foremen and overseers
Hostlers.	1,811	1,810	1
Hucksters and peddlers.	2,277	2,154	123
Merchants (except wholesale)	2,568	2,308	260
Messengers and errand and office boys.	42,045	37,835	4,216
Packers and shippers.	4,611	1,675	2,937
Porters and helpers (in stores, etc.)	2,633	2,556	70
Salesmen and saleswomen.	20,342	13,376	6,966
Steam railroad employees.	2,480	2,454	26
Stenographers and typewriters	1,486	454	1,032
Street railway employees.	98	97	1
Telegraph and telephone linemen	51	51
Telegraph and telephone operators	1,315	736	579
Others in trade and transportation	3,563	3,209	354
Manufacturing and mechanical	284,330	170,980	113,350
Carpenters and joiners.	1,924	1,924
Masons (brick and stone)	582	582
Painters, glaziers, and varnishers.	3,253	3,060	193
Paper hangers.	304	304
Plasterers	131	131
Plumbers and gas and steamfitters	1,691	1,689	2
Roofers and slaters.	62	62

CHILD LABOR IN THE UNITED STATES (Continued).

OCCUPATIONS	10 TO 15 YEARS		
	Total	Males	Female
Mechanics (not otherwise specified)	85	85
Oil well and oil works employes	208	208
Other chemical workers	583	330	253
Brick and tilemakers, etc.	2,413	2,368	45
Glassworkers	5,365	4,816	549
Marble and stonecutters	338	338
Potters	1,039	692	347
Fishermen and oystermen	2,275	2,150	125
Miners and quarrymen	24,217	24,113	104
Bakers	1,948	1,550	398
Butchers	1,382	1,382
Butter and cheesemakers	399	366	33
Confectioners	2,056	647	1,409
Millers	249	242	7
Other food preparers	1,972	1,178	794
Blacksmiths	1,525	1,522	3
Iron and steelworkers	7,592	7,223	369
Machinists	4,170	4,148	22
Steam boiler makers	321	321
Stove, furnace, and gratemakers	301	295	6
Tool and cutlery makers	830	737	93
Wheelwrights	111	111
Wireworkers	842	707	135
Boot and shoe makers and repairers	8,235	5,215	3,020
Harness and saddle makers	536	466	70
Leather curriers and tanners	1,377	1,113	264
Trunk and leather-case makers, etc.	866	519	347
Bottlers and sodawater makers, etc.	751	596	155
Brewers and maltsters	532	466	66
Distillers and rectifiers	24	24
Cabinet makers	297	297
Coopers	990	978	12
Saw and planing mill employes	4,925	4,892	33
Other woodworkers	5,721	4,811	910
Brassworkers	915	808	107
Clock and watchmakers	617	398	219
Gold and silver workers	1,408	795	613
Tin plate and tinware makers	2,874	2,545	329
Other metal workers	1,890	1,634	256
Bookbinders	1,965	636	1,329
Boxmakers (paper)	3,333	529	2,804
Engravers	268	245	23
Paper and pulp mill operatives	1,557	842	715
Printers, lithographers and pressmen	6,289	5,661	628
Bleachery and dye works operatives	803	678	125
Carpet factory operatives	1,319	650	669
Cotton mill operatives	44,427	21,005	23,422
Hosiery and knitting mill operatives	8,267	2,070	6,197
Silk mill operatives	8,938	2,933	6,005

There should be severe child labor and factory inspection laws. It is very desirable that married women should not work in factories. The prime duty of the man is to work, to be the breadwinner; the prime duty of the woman is to be the mother, the housewife. All questions of tariff and finance sink into utter insignificance when compared with the tremendous, the vital importance of trying to shape conditions so that these two duties of the man and of the woman can be fulfilled under reasonably favorable circumstances.—Theodore Roosevelt, Message, 1904.

TEN MILLION PERSONS IN POVERTY IN THE UNITED STATES.

BY ROBERT HUNTER.

After studying with great care all the statistics and sources of information known to me upon the subject, I have come to the conclusion, as stated in my book on "Poverty," that there are no fewer than 10,000,000 persons in actual poverty in the United States. This does not mean that there is this number in distress; it does mean that at least this number is much of the time underfed, poorly clothed, and improperly housed. The estimate is conservative, and an inquiry, properly conducted, would very likely show a much larger number of persons in poverty.

I base this statement upon my own observation in various cities in this country, upon the figures of the United States Census for 1900 concerning unemployment, upon the reports of the State Boards of Charity, the Bulletin of Statistics Department of the City of Boston for 1903, the records of the Municipal Court of New York concerning the number of evictions, and the report of the Department of Corrections, concerning the number of pauper burials in New York City. The report of the New York State Board of Charities indicate that 29 per cent. of the people of New York in the year 1897, and 24 per cent. in 1899, found it necessary to apply for relief. While these figures cover the relief given by many private organizations they do not include a great deal of relief given by many small clubs, circles, churches, committees and trades unions. But, nevertheless, it is difficult to believe that such a large number of people in New York State were in distress.

Excluding half the number of persons relieved by the dispensaries, in order to make some arbitrary allowance for duplications, even then the number of persons relieved would indicate that the poverty of New York State is enormous. In actual figures, as reduced, persons in distress in 1897 numbered 1,387,348, or about 19 per cent. of the people of New York; and in 1899, they numbered 1,322,891, or about 18 per cent. Leaving out all dispensary aid the number in distress for 1898 and 1899 is about 12 per cent. of the population of the State. The Boston figures show that in the year 1903 over 136,000 persons, or about 20 per cent. of the total population, were aided by the public authorities alone. Taking all of these figures, the results would be as follows: 1897, 19 per cent. of the people of New York State in distress; 1899, 18 per cent. of the people of New York State in distress; 1903, 20 per cent. of the people of Boston in distress; 1903, 14 per cent. of the families in Manhattan evicted. Every year 10 per cent., about, of those who die in Manhattan have pauper burials. In addition to these facts, the United Hebrew Charities in their report for 1901, declared that from 75,000 to 100,000 members of the New York Jewish community were unable to supply themselves with the immediate necessities of life, and for this reason were dependent in some way upon the public purse. The U. S. Census for 1900 would indicate that not fewer than 100,000 persons in New York were unemployed from four to six months during that year. On the basis of all these figures, a conservative estimate of the distress would be that 14 per cent. of the people in the State of New York are in distress. Studies in a small town in Indiana made about twelve years ago indicate that a similar percentage were in distress there; a study made in Chicago four or five years ago led me almost to the same conclusion. These figures, however, indicate only the amount of distress, while the number of people in poverty would be very much greater. Those in poverty may not find it necessary to rely upon public assistance, but their manner of living is such as to prevent them from getting sufficient of necessities of life to enable them to maintain a state of physical efficiency.

My experience in Illinois, Indiana and New York would lead me to believe that this could be fairly estimated at 20 per cent. of the people, and applying this only to the largest industrial States, where it may be assumed the percentage of persons in distress is about the same as in the States inquired into, we

may safely conclude that 6,600,000 persons in the States of New York, Massachusetts, Connecticut, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Illinois, Indiana, and Michigan are in poverty. Taking half of this percentage and applying it to other States, many of which have important industrial communities, as, for instance, Wisconsin, Colorado, California, Rhode Island, etc., and the conclusion is that not fewer than 10,000,000 persons in the United States are in poverty. It is impossible in a short statement such as this to go into other estimates which would indicate a similar amount of poverty, and I am unable to state fully many reasons for believing that the percentages above used are conservative; but these figures, I believe, may be of use in conveying some idea as to the extent of poverty in the country. They are, of course, only estimates, and should not be used too positively or without certain reservations.

These additional facts are important: over 2,000,000 workmen in the year 1900 were unemployed from four to six months during the year; about 500,000 male immigrants arrive yearly and seek work in the very districts where unemployment is greatest. Nearly half of the families in the country are propertyless; over 1,700,000 little children are forced to become wage-earners when they should still be in school; about 5,000,000 women find it necessary to work, and about 2,000,000 are employed in mills, factories, etc.; probably not fewer than 1,000,000 workers are injured or killed while doing their work; and about 10,000,000 of the persons now living will, if the present ratio is kept up, die of the preventable disease, tuberculosis.

It is to be regretted that our statistical data is too inadequate to permit us to be positive in our statements concerning the extent of poverty. It is to be hoped that these estimates may arouse the proper Government officials to make careful inquiries into the facts. No one would be more pleased than I if they prove to be an overestimate, but all information which is now available would lead one to conclude that the extent of poverty is greater than this estimate would indicate.

PAUPERISM AND CRIME.

The number of Dependents, Delinquents, and Defectives receiving public aid or supported by private Charities, estimated by Prof. C. J. Bushnell, from State Reports, in Prof. Henderson's "Modern Methods of Charity," pp. 385-390.

STATE	Number	Per cent of Population	Annual Expense	Expense Per Family
Massachusetts.....	415,730	14.	\$12,121,696	23.51
Connecticut.....	100,000	11.	4,000,000	28.
New York.....	160,000	2.	25,000,000 ¹	18.00
Pennsylvania.....	110,000	1.7	26,000,000 ²	20.00
Ohio.....	100,000	2.4	5,034,886	12.00
Michigan.....	100,000	4.	849,125 ³
Wisconsin.....	15,000	0.7	1,000,000	3-4.00
California.....	2,667,000	10.00
Total.....	1,000,730 ³	4.	\$75,672,707

In comparing these figures with those of other States it must be remembered that they are for those receiving public aid or reported by private charities. Many more received unreported charity. The high percentage for Massachusetts and Connecticut are therefore partly due to a more complete registration of private charities and more largely, probably, to the fact that in the East dependents are more generally placed in institutions than in the West, where institutions have not been equally developed. Many Eastern and far Western cities give no outdoor relief. Higher percentages, therefore may not always mean more paupers, but better care for them.

Many more receive charity. In 1899, 18 per cent. of the people in New York State received public or private charity. In 1903, 14 per cent. of the families of Manhattan were evicted. Every year about 10 per cent. of those who die in Manhattan have pauper burial. See Robert Hunter's *Poverty*.

¹ Expended in public charities alone.

² Public relief alone besides express for goods, hospitals, vagrants and other items.

³ Of this number, more than half (609,895) were in public institutions of relief or correction.

Judging from these figures, Prof. Bushnell estimates that "the total number of public and private abnormal dependents in the United States must not be far from 3,000,000, or one twenty-fifth of the total population of the country at an annual expense of nearly \$200,000,000, or one-tenth of the total wage income of all the manufacturing establishments of the country." Of Massachusetts he says that her charities and corrections cost her annually \$23.51 for every family in the State, an amount which exceeds "every year by nearly a million dollars the total current expenses for all the public schools of all the cities of more than 8,000 inhabitants in the State." The capital involved is "more than one-third that invested in all the manufacturing establishments of this famous manufacturing State." For Connecticut the expense is \$28 per family. For New York it is \$18 per family (reported charity alone)—"\$4,000,000 greater than that for all the city schools in the State." In Pennsylvania the capital involved is "more than \$500,000,000, or more than half the value of all the farming property of the State, one-third of all manufacturing capital and fifteen times the value of the public property invested in the public schools."

STATISTICS OF CRIME.

The Census figures for 1900 on Crimes and Pauperism are not yet available. The Census for 1890 puts the total number of prisoners in detention in the United States January 1, 1890, at 83,329 (45,233 in penitentiaries, 19,861 in county jails, 3,264 in city prisons, 9,968 in workhouses, 2,308 leased out, 1,695 in military prisons and insane asylums.

NATURE OF CRIMES.

The Eleventh Census says that of the prisoners (January 1, 1890,) 2.2 per cent. were committed for crimes against government; 22.9 per cent. against society; 21 against the person; 45.8 against property and 8.1 miscellaneous.

For 1900 we have estimates only. Mr. Eugene Smith (*Proceedings of National Prison Association, 1900, House Document No. 491, 56th Congress, 2d Session,*) estimates 250,000 in the United States who make their living at least in some degree by the practice of crime. Their annual income he estimates at \$1,600 each or \$400,000,000. Taxation caused by crime he puts at \$200,000,000, besides the property destroyed by animals; the time, life and labor lost; the private expense entailed, expenses for steel safes, safe deposit vaults, burglar alarms, detectives, locks, bars, bolts.

WHO COMMIT CRIMES? SEX, RACE AND NATIVITY.

	Men	Women	Negroes	PER MILLION OF POPULATION		
				1880	1890	Increase
North Atlantic.....	24,8830	3,375	2,037	1,425	1,624	199
South Atlantic.....	10,505	904	8,863	1,043	1,288	245
North Central.....	18,873	981	2,738	862	888	26
South Central.....	15,131	953	10,381	1,250	1,466	216
Western.....	6,532	192	258	2,199	2,221	22
United States.....	75,924	6,405	24,277	1,169	1,315	146

After a careful study of the statistics of *penitentiaries* in 1890, Prof. Falkner found that of 9,859 prisoners reported by the Wardens' Association, there were only 227 females or 2.3 per cent., which, he says, may mean that females are not sent to penitentiaries or do not commit the more serious crimes. (The total aggregate in all penal institutes, however, in 1890 was 40,741 men to 32,304 women.) Nearly one-fifth of the convicts in the penitentiaries studied were colored, a proportion far in advance of the colored in the population.

CRIME AND FOREIGN POPULATION.

As to the extent to which the foreign born in the community contribute to our penal population, Prof. Falkner found that, in 1890, *considering penitentiaries alone* (not including workhouses and other penal institutions) adult whites of foreign birth did not contribute more than their due proportion as compared with the native born.

But of the *second* generation of the foreign born—that is, of the native whites of foreign parentage—it does seem true that they produce more than their proportion of criminals, for native whites of native parentage had 753 prisoners for each million in 1890, and native whites of foreign parentage had 1,345. And taking into consideration penal institutions of all sorts, except juvenile reformatories, the 20,000,000 of our population in 1890 who were foreign by birth or parentage, furnished a half more prisoners than the 34,000,000 of our native white population. In other words, the tendency to crime in the United States was more than two and one half times as strong among those who are foreign by birth or parentage, as among the native white.

Difference of race, however, seems to count more than difference of nativity in the production of criminals. The following table, compiled from the census of 1890, gives the nationality of the parents of prisoners and paupers in the United States, so far as these were known, and compares the percentages of the extent to which each country has furnished the parents of criminals, with the percentage of the extent to which it has furnished parents in the community at large. It will be seen by making this comparison what differences there are in this respect between races.

PERCENTAGE OF NATIVITY OF 105,885 KNOWN PARENTS OF PRISONERS IN U. S. AND 108,802 KNOWN PARENTS OF PAUPERS IN U. S. CENSUS OF 1890.

	Canadian, Eng.	Canadian, French	English	Scotch	Irish	French	German	Scandinavian	Russian	Hungarian	Bohemian	Italian	Total Foreign	Native
Parents of total population.	1.50	.82	3.07	.86	7.85	.41	10.94	2.11	.41	.12	.34	.40	33.02	66.94
Parents of prisoners.	3.83	.30	5.66	1.88	27.56	.97	943.	1.20	.36	.24	.08	1.14	56.81	43.18
Parents of paupers.	1.85	.22	4.30	1.28	29.79	.89	14.36	1.98	.12	.09	.32	.29	48.46	41.59

As to age and conjugal condition, Prof. Falkner found that in round numbers one-third of the convicts were over 30 years of age, and that 68.75 per cent. were unmarried. As to occupations, agriculture produced 15.27 per cent. of the prisoners and (in 1900) 44.3 of the community; personal and professional life, 72.09 of prisoners, and 23.7 of the community; trade and transportation, 10.41 of prisoners and 16.3 of the community; manufacturing and mechanical pursuits, 22.01 of prisoners to 23.3 of the community.

"Fundamentally the questions of love and confidence between parents and children underlie the whole social system—not only underlie, but are. Our civil life in the long run will rise or sink as the average family is a success or failure. All questions of social life will solve themselves if the children are brought up to be the highest they are capable of being, if our social and family relations are as they should be; if not, no material prosperity, no progress in literature, art, success in business or victory in war will make up for it to the nation."—Theodore Roosevelt.

INTERNATIONAL STATISTICS

Comparisons between countries as to criminal statistics are most difficult and in great danger of being misleading because the laws and basis of the statistics are so different for different countries. Generally speaking the higher the moral standard of a country, the more numerous will be its laws and regulations, particularly against petty offences and still more strict will be the enforcement of the laws. Consequently a high ratio of arrests and convictions, at least for petty offences, is an indication of a high rather than a low moral standard. Statistics of only the greater crimes can be compiled at all, and there with great uncertainty. Mr. W. D. Morrison of His Majesty's Prison at Wandsworth, Eng., gives the following figures in his *Crime and Its Causes* (1891):

COUNTRIES	Population over 10 Years	Years	HOMICIDES OF ALL KINDS				TRIALS FOR THEFT	
			Tried		Convicted		Annually	
			Annual Average	Per 100,000 Inhabitants	Annual Average	Per 100,000 Inhabitants	Years	Per 100,000 Inhabitants
Italy	23,408,277	1887	3,606	15.04	2,805	11.98	1880-84	221
Austria	17,199,237	1883-6	689	4.01	499	2.90		
France	31,044,370	1882-6	847	2.73	580	1.87	1879-83	121
Belgium	4,377,813	1881-5	132	3.02	101	2.31	1876-80	143
England	19,898,053	1882-6	318	1.60	151	0.76	1880-84	228
Ireland	3,854,588	1882-6	129	3.35	54	1.40	1880-84	101
Scotland	2,841,941	1882-6	60	2.11	21	0.74	1880-84	289
Spain	13,300,889	1883-6	1,584	11.91	1,085	8.16	1883-84	24
Hungary	10,821,558	1882-6			625	5.78	1876-80	82
Holland	3,172,464	1882-6	35	1.10	28	0.88	1876-80	82
Germany	35,278,742	1882-6	567	1.61	476	1.35	1882-83	262

THE DEFECTIVE CLASSES.

The Statistics of the Twelfth Census are not yet available.

Insane.—In 1880 there were reported 91,959 insane persons in the United States, or 1,833 for each 1,000,000 of population; in 1890, 106,485, or 1,697 for each 1,000,000, showing a decrease. But in 1896, reports from thirty States to the National Conference of Charities and Corrections showed 102,000 insane, a ratio which would mean 145,000 for the United States. But these ratios are all of doubtful value, since they all depend on the varying degree to which different censuses have succeeded in registering the insane. The number of the insane in asylums is doubtless on the increase. It is larger among whites than negroes and larger for foreign whites than natives. According to Levasseur, "Pop. Francaise," p. 347, the number of the insane in France for 100,000 of each class was: artists, 9.6; lawyers, 8.5; clergy, 4.1; physicians, 3.8; professors and literary men, 3.5; soldiers and sailors, 2.0; industry, 1.1; leisure class, 1.0; commercial, 0.4; agriculture, 0.2. (See table below.)

According to Professor R. Mayo-Smith's "Statistics and Sociology," p. 221, the number of insane persons in most countries is on the increase. The census of 1891 in England showed an increase of the total number of lunatics since 1871, but calculated that this was due to the better care given to them and the consequent prolongation of life. In 1889 there were 85,345 insane persons (including idiots) in England, or 2,907 per 1,000,000. In Ireland, the proportion of lunatics to 1,000,000 of the population was 775 in 1851, and in 1891, 3,174. The proportion of idiots was, in 1851, 750 per 1,000,000, and in 1891, 1,326. Since

1881, however, there has been a decrease. In Scotland, lunatics increased from 2,250 per 1,000,000 in 1881 to 2,596 in 1891, while idiots decreased from 1603 per 1,000,000 to 1,246. There are more women insane than man in Sweden, England, Scotland, and Ireland. In Austria and Hungary men lead. In Ireland, 79.6 per cent. of the mentally deranged were unmarried. In 1891, in Ireland, 41 per cent. could read and write. (See table below.)

Blind.—The total number of blind in the United States June 1, 1890, was 50,568—whites, 43,351; negroes, 7,060; others, 157; males, 28,080; females, 22,488; native-born whites, 34,205; foreign-born whites, 9,146. The number of blind in one eye only was 93,988. In the United States in 1889 there were 2,931 persons under instructions in institutions for the blind.

Deaf and Dumb.—The total number of deaf mutes in the United States June 1, 1890, was 40,592—whites, 37,447; negroes, 3,115; others, 30; males, 22,429; females, 18,163; native-born whites, 33,278; foreign-born whites, 4,169.

The number of persons so deaf as to be unable to hear loud conversation June 1, 1890, was 121,178, of whom 80,611 were able to speak. The latter were 49,278 males, 31,338 females, 77,308 whites, 3,308 negroes.

Deaf mutism is an affection of childhood. The steady decrease after the age of 20, shows the greater mortality among these unfortunates.

Feeble Minded.—The total number of feeble-minded in the United States June 1, 1890, was 95,609—whites, 84,997; negroes, 10,574; males, 52,962; females, 42,647; native-born whites, 75,910; foreign-born whites, 9,087.

International Statistics.—Professor Mayo-Smith "Statistics and Sociology," p. 213, gives the following table, but reminds us that it is of doubtful comparative value, owing to the different degrees to which the deficient are registered in different countries:

DEFICIENT FOR 1,000,000 OF POPULATION: 1890.

COUNTRIES	Blind	Deaf-Mutes	Insane	Idiotic	Total
Austria.....	806	1,292	1,513	2,656	4,267
England and Wales.....	809	489	3,357	4,653
Hungary.....	1,051	1,089	603	1,009	3,752
Ireland.....	1,135	715	3,176	1,327	6,353
Norway.....	1,289	1,080	3,896	6,265
Scotland.....	695	528	2,594	1,246	5,063
Sweden.....	825	1,019	1,818	1,592	5,344
United States.....	805	659	1,697	1,526	4,687
North Atlantic Division.....	777	670	2,385	1,472	5,304
South Atlantic Division.....	888	634	1,322	1,653	4,797
North Central Division.....	783	731	1,647	1,634	4,795
South Central Division.....	895	581	959	1,532	3,967
Western Division.....	561	430	1,878	648	3,517

¹ Under insane are included idiots. ² Under idiots are meant cretins. ³ Includes insane and idiots.

JUVENILE COURTS.

Juvenile Offenders.—According to Professor Henderson (See "Child Saving") a Juvenile Court is the control agency in a rational system of dealing with juvenile offenders. They should not be associated with hardened criminals. A jury may be demanded but is ordinarily superfluous. In many cases admonition from a wise judge is all that is necessary. Fines may be placed on parents, or others be required to give security and are "the only form of penalty which do not injure beyond remedy." In some cases probation officers (women for girls) are an essential factor. To these a judge may assign a delinquent to be watched over, guided, and reported, without being sent to a reform school. This saves a large percentage of children.

SOCIAL PROGRESS

NUMBER OF MURDERS AND HOMICIDES IN THE U. S. SINCE 1885.

(From statistics compiled by the *Chicago Tribune*.)

YEAR	Number of Murders and Homicides in the United States	Number of Murders and Homicides for each Million of People	Number of Suicides in the United States	Number of Executions in the United States	Number of Murders and Homicides to each execution	Number of Lynchings
1885.....	1,808	32.2	978	108	17	181
1886.....	1,499	26.1	914	83	18	133
1887.....	2,335	39.8	1,387	79	29	125
1888.....	2,184	36.4	1,487	87	25	144
1889.....	3,567	58.2	2,224	98	36	175
1890.....	4,290	68.5	2,640	102	42	123
1891.....	5,906	92.4	3,331	123	56	193
1892.....	6,791	104.2	3,860	107	63	230
1893.....	6,615	99.5	4,436	126	52	200
1894.....	9,800	144.7	4,912	132	73	189
1895.....	10,500	152.2	5,759	132	79	166
1896.....	10,652	151.3	6,530	122	87	131
1897.....	9,520	132.8	6,600	128	74	166
1898.....	7,840	107.2	5,920	109	72	127
1899.....	6,225	83.6	5,340	131	87	107
1900.....	8,275	108.4	6,755	117	71	115
1901.....	7,852	100.9	7,845	118	67	135
1902.....	8,834	111.7	8,132	144	61	96
1903.....	8,976	112.	8,597	124	72	104
1904.....	8,482..	104.4	116	73	87
TOTAL.....	131,951	86,647	2,286	57	2,917

NOTE.—In reading these figures due allowances should be made for errors. At least for the South, Southwest, and West, the high rate of telegraph tolls and the lack of local newspapers made the machinery for collecting general news much more imperfect for the first half of the above period than for the latter half. The now increased attention given to the number of homicides and lynchings has worked also undoubtedly to make the latter records much more complete. Yet allowing for this, and although things do not seem quite so black as they were in the years that followed the panic of 1893, an increase from 1,808 to 8,482 murders in 20 years is an increase startling in the extreme. Yet possibly even more significant is the fact that in 1885 there were only 17 murders and homicides for each execution, and in 1904, 73 for each execution, an increase of over 400 per cent. The columns too show that except for the years of depression from 1894 to 1899, the growth of murders and homicides has been almost steady showing it the resultant not of accidental causes, but of some sinister evil in the nation which is steadily working increasing wrong.

CAUSES OF MURDERS AND HOMICIDES IN THE UNITED STATES, 1894-1900.

(From statistics compiled by the *Chicago Tribune*.)

YEAR	Quarrels	Unknown Causes	Jealousy	Liquor	By Highwaymen	Infant-icide	Resisting Arrest	Highwaymen Killed	Strikes	Self Defense	Outrage	Riots	Insanity
1894.....	4,536	1,856	812	776	525	340	273	204	179	99	49	25	126
1895.....	4,813	2,466	1,136	684	441	269	232	159	18	104	49	28	101
1896.....	5,530	3,561	401	159	200	300	52	100	10	48	28	10	253
1897.....	4,638	2,654	376	518	387	321	195	128	49	97	43	21	93
1898.....	3,867	2,697	205	207	222	248	147	82	22	33	5	25	80
1899.....	3,309	1,699	173	212	296	182	114	83	29	31	6	10	81
1900.....	4,823	2,187	210	289	239	159	83	85	58	28	8	13	93
1904.....	4,181	1,651	613	640	464	153	66	64	55	33	17	14	271
Total....	35,697	18,771	3,926	3,485	2,774	1,972	1,162	905	420	473	205	146	1,198

ONE CAUSE OF CRIME.

Commenting upon these figures, Mr. S. S. McClure says in his magazine:

I was led to consider the prevalence of crime by the results of the investigations made by this Magazine. It seemed to me incredible that legislators, mayors, aldermen, policemen—even justices of the peace and sometimes police judges—selected by the methods described in Mr. Steffens's articles, could fully protect life and property.

Governments are established and maintained chiefly for the purpose of protecting life and property.

Is it possible for officials to prevent ordinary crimes who are selected and elected generally for reasons other than special fitness for their tasks, and frequently for the definite purpose of robbing the people who elect them?

Can a body of policemen engaged in blackmail, persecution, and in shielding lawbreakers make a community law-abiding? Can a body of policemen engaged in criminal practices prevent others from committing crimes? Can a board of aldermen who for private gain combine to loot a city govern a city well?

We have described time and again the oligarchy which consists of these three classes:

- 1st. Saloon-keepers, gamblers, and others who engage in business that degrades.
- 2d. Contractors, capitalists, bankers, and others who can make money by getting franchises and other property of the community cheaper by bribery than by paying the community.
- 3d. Politicians who are willing to seek and accept office with the aid and endorsement of the classes already mentioned.

These three classes combine and get control of the party machine. They nominate and elect men who will agree to help them rob the city or state for the benefit of themselves and who will agree also not to enforce the laws in regard to the various businesses that degrade a community.

We find under various modifications this criminal oligarchy in control of many communities in the United States. We find representatives of this combination in the United States Senate, among governors of states, state legislators, mayors, aldermen, police officials. We find them among men in business life—captains of industry, bankers, street-railway magnates. In short, wherever franchises or contracts of any kind are to be secured from a community, we find leading citizens in the ring to rob their own neighbors, managers of corporations bribing law-makers, lawyers for pay helping their clients to bribe safely, jurors refusing to render just verdicts.

These men we have called enemies of the Republic. They are worse. They are enemies of the human race. They constitute a class of criminals very different from ordinary criminals who break laws. These men destroy law.

A NOTE BY TALCOTT WILLIAMS.

According to Booker T. Washington, no lynchings were reported in November, 1904, only 2 in December, and none in January, 1905—only 2 lynchings in three months. Such a thing has not occurred in 20 years; probably not in a century. This confirms what I myself have noted, that the two seasons when lynchings take place over the South and Southwest are just after the summer crops are gathered, before cotton picking begins and when cotton picking and ginning is over, and before cotton planting. These two gaps in agriculture give two seasons when the white man is realizing on the yield of his field and spending a little more for drink than usual, and when the colored man who has completed one job is wandering off for another, taking a little idleness himself. It is a proverb at the South among the negroes I find that "they don't hang no niggers in cotton picking" when labor is in demand, a brutal fact which gives me hope that as industry grows better organized it will be seen that it is an economic waste to hang a man or burn him alive, aside from other obvious arguments against lynching.

THE SOCIAL EVIL.

Abridged from the report prepared under the direction of "The Committee of Fifteen," New York City, 1902.

Trading in vice has in late years had a rapid development in New York City. The Raines Law, requiring saloons to become "hotels," has given opportunity and a cloak of attractiveness and ease to prostitution. The appearance of the "cadet," (who makes money by seducing girls and placing them in houses of prostitution) is but one link between the tenements and the evil trade. The partnership between some of the Police Department and the keepers of evil houses has given immunity from arrest in exchange for a share in the profits. "When a house containing not more than ten inmates, exclusive of the proprietress, and known as a 'fifty-cent house' could afford to pay an initiation fee of \$500 to the wardsman and \$50 a month for the privilege of continuing in this illegal occupation unmolested, an estimate can be formed as to the amount of trade which must be carried on within." In one precinct not over a mile square, there were in 1900, about forty such houses, and sixty well known

centers of prostitution in tenement houses. There are no trustworthy statistics in existence for New York City generally. The report declares that experience teaches unmistakably that a system of regulation of vice as practiced in most European continental cities is no radical or adequate remedy for the evil even in its merely physical aspect. The recommendation of the committee says: "The better housing for the poor, purer forms of amusement, the raising of the conditions of labor, especially of female labor, better moral education, minors more and more withdrawn from the clutches of vice by means of reformatories, the spread of contagion checked by more adequate hospital accommodations, the evil itself unceasingly condemned by public opinion as a sin against morality and punished as a crime, with stringent penalties whenever it takes the form of a public nuisance—these are the methods of dealing with it upon which the members of the committee have united." Notes to the report quote Lecour as estimating in the seventies 30,000 in Paris, of whom 4,000 are registered; the registered at present are 6,000. Muller, in 1867, estimated 20,000 in Vienna; Neiman, in 1890, estimated 50,000 in Berlin; in London are to be found the greatest number "trained for prostitution from earliest childhood."

In 1893, Elbridge T. Gerry and Superintendent Byrnes both estimated the prostitutes of New York City at 40,000. Mr. Goodchild says that as it is estimated that for every fallen woman there are five fallen men, this would mean more than half the men of the city; but prostitutes in that city are not supported by residents alone. There is no reason for believing that New York is worse than other American cities in proportion to their size. Recent agitation in almost all American cities has much reduced the outward manifestations of the evil. The Prefect of Police of Paris was quoted in 1893 as estimating 100,000 prostitutes in that city. An investigation in 1888 in Massachusetts of 3,866 prostitutes, found 1,236 with no previous occupation (home life), 1,155 formerly servants, 505 dressmakers and seamstresses, 292 from factories, 126 from stores or offices, 52 from the stage.

CASES OF POVERTY.

These are very various and of them various views are taken. Professor A. G. Warner, in his "American Charities" (1894) has collected and tabulated the findings of a large number of investigations of the causes of actual cases of poverty in the United States, England, and Germany. He includes in his table practically all the findings, as to actual cases of poverty, made in a scientific way by trained investigators prior to 1894. His table embodies the results of investigations by the charity organization societies of Baltimore, Buffalo, and New York City, the associated charities of Boston and Cincinnati; the studies of Charles Booth in Stepney and St. Pancras parishes in London; the statements of Böhmert (*Armenwesen in 77 Deutschen Städten*) for 77 German cities, published in 1886. It will be seen that here, if anywhere, we have a scientific analysis of the facts of the case. The conclusions, and especially the averages of even this table, however, should not be used without reading the explanations that follow it. The table is on the opposite page, quoting, only Professor Warner's percentages.

Of this table Professor Warner says: (pp 36, 37):

"The first duty of one presenting such a table as this is to indicate clearly what it does not show. It deals, as already indicated, only with the exciting causes of poverty; and yet this fact is not kept clearly in mind, even by careful workers.

"Probably nothing in the tables of the causes of poverty, as ascertained by cold counting, will more surprise the average reader than the fact that intemperance is held to be the chief cause in only from one-fifteenth to one-fifth of the cases, and that where an attempt is made to learn in how many cases it had a contributory influence, its presence cannot be traced at all in more than 28.1 per cent. of the cases." (See Intemperance.) Professor Warner sums up the case by saying: "The general conclusion regarding drink as a cause of poverty is sufficiently well formulated by Mr. Booth. 'Of drink in all its combinations, adding to every trouble, undermining every effort after good, destroying the home and cursing the young lives of the children, the stories tell enough. It does not stand in apparent chief cause in as many cases as sickness and old age; but if it were not for drink, sickness and old age could be better met.'"

REPORT FROM	NUM- BER OF CASES.	CAUSES OF POVERTY INDICATING MISCONDUCT.										CAUSES INDICATING MISFORTUNE.									
		LACK OF NORMAL SUPPORT.					MATTERS OF EM- PLOYMENT.					MATTERS OF PERSONAL CAPACITY.					MATTERS OF PERSONAL CAPACITY.				
		Drink.	Inefficiency and Shiftness.	Crime, Immorality and Dishonesty.	Roaming Disposition.	Total.	Imprisonment of Bread Winner.	Orphans and Abandoned.	Neglect by Relatives.	No Male Support.	Lack of Employment.	Insufficient Employ- ment.	Poorly Paid Employ- ment.	Unhealthy or Danger- ous Employment.	Ignorance of English.	Accident.	Sickness or Death in Family.	Physical Defect.	Insanity.	Old Age.	Total.
Baltimore:		Per	Per	Per	Per	Per	Per	Per	Per	Per	Per	Per	Per	Per	Per	Per	Per	Per	Per	Per	
1890-91	690	9.0	14.0	7.1	1.4	25.1	4.4	2.0	4.0	13.0	8.0	6.0	4.4	4.0	19.5	5.0	5.0	.6	5.0	68.3	
1891-92	695	7.1	12.0	1.0	1.4	21.5	4.4	1.4	5.0	12.0	9.1	4.0	.3	4.0	21.0	7.1	7.1	1.0	7.1	73.8	
Boston:		Per	Per	Per	Per	Per	Per	Per	Per	Per	Per	Per	Per	Per	Per	Per	Per	Per	Per	Per	
1890-91	991	19.2	7.6	1.5	6.28	9	1.6	.5	7.2	14.1	6.0	.5	.7	.7	3.6	23.2	2.5	.7	3.8	65.7	
1891-92	1,092	21.9	6.9	1.4	1.1	31.4	1.7	1.0	4.8	14.3	5.0	1.3	.1	.9	2.3	24.9	2.3	.6	4.4	64.7	
Buffalo:		Per	Per	Per	Per	Per	Per	Per	Per	Per	Per	Per	Per	Per	Per	Per	Per	Per	Per	Per	
1878-87	6,021	11.6	7.3	1.8	6.6	31.1	7.5	3.5	21.1	8.7	.8	81.1	
1888-89	487	8.9	3.6	2.2	14.9	27.2	8.7	4.6	22.7	6.6	.6	87.5	
1889-90	576	4.9	5.7	2.4	13.4	32.5	6.6	5.0	23.8	5.2	.5	89.4	
1890-91	560	5.7	1.8	1.9	19.4	26.8	7.0	5.5	26.2	5.0	.7	92.5	
1891-92	581	8.1	3.4	1.9	15.0	21.9	5.7	.3	4.5	29.5	1.0	1.8	85.4	
Cincinnati:		Per	Per	Per	Per	Per	Per	Per	Per	Per	Per	Per	Per	Per	Per	Per	Per	Per	Per	Per	
1890-91	2,174	13.3	13.3	7	5.2	32.5	3	.5	7.1	9.7	2.5	.9	.2	1.1	2.3	15.5	1.7	.6	3.0	46.4	
1891-92	2,670	9.2	12.5	3.0	5.4	30.1	1.2	1.6	.5	7.1	11.3	11.9	.8	.6	2.3	14.6	3.2	.7	3.1	66.4	
New York:		Per	Per	Per	Per	Per	Per	Per	Per	Per	Per	Per	Per	Per	Per	Per	Per	Per	Per	Per	
1891	1,412	10.7	7.2	1.4	3.3	22.6	.6	.1	.5	7.2	29.0	6.1	2.5	.4	3.3	18.5	2.7	.7	3.3	74.9	
London:		Per	Per	Per	Per	Per	Per	Per	Per	Per	Per	Per	Per	Per	Per	Per	Per	Per	Per	Per	
(Stepney)	694	12.6	7	2.5	4.6	4.4	4.7	26.7	1.7	32.8	74.9	
(St. Pancras)	736	21.9	13.4	6.9	2.8	2.2	2.6	20.7	4.3	23.4	54.0	
76 German Cities:	95,845	1.3	1.4	2.7	1.7	5.6	.6	2.5	12.5	1.1	45.8	2.4	3.4	15.8	91.4	
Average ² :	11	8.26	1.94	2.2	21.3	1.5	1.4	1.0	8.0	17.4	6.7	4.4	.4	3.5	23.6	4.1	1.2	9.6	74.4	

¹ Including large family, nature of abode, pauper associates, and heredity.
² These averages are of unequal value, depending upon the number of cases they are averaged from. A glance at the columns will show how many cases each average represents. Totals and averages for drunkenness and unemployment are among the most complete.

PER CAPITA CONSUMPTION OF ALCOHOLIC BEVERAGES.¹

	WINE			BEER			SPIRITS 50 PER CENT ALCOHOL			ABSOLUTE ALCOHOL	
	1885-89	1890-94	1895-98	1885-89	1890-94	1895-98	1885-89	1890-94	1895-98		1900
	1900	1885-89	1890-94	1895-98	1900	1885-89	1890-94	1895-98	1900		
Austria	3.87	3.83	3.44	11.5	13.2	15.16	1.8	2.2	2.4	2.08	
Belgium	.72	.82	.91	36.9	39.7	43.92	1.96	2.14	2.00	2.83	
Canada	.117	.098	.09	3.57	3.5 ^u	3.56	.78 ¹²	.75 ⁸	.66	.52	
Denmark	20.2	23.9	24.30	18.4	19.70	19.70	3.2	3.3	3.3	2.43	
France	1.14 ²	1.28	1.38	4.7	4.9	5.25	1.68	1.90	1.89	3.56	
German Empire	.46	.44	.42	20.6	23.5	25.40	1.97	1.97	1.90	2.08	
Holland	5.01	1.89	2.31	.9	.15	2.13	1.97	1.96	1.87	1.00	
Hungary	21.2	21.5	17.92	1.8	1.5	1.11	.33	.29	.24	1.50	
Italy	.187	.148	.14	7.67	7.4 ^u	7.97	.71 ¹²	.657	.65	2.30	
New Zealand	.19 ⁸	.25 ⁸	.37	3.3	4.5	4.12	.69	.76	.67	.73	
Norway	16.2	17.9	.60	7.4	.69	.92	1.43	.11	.09	.52	
Portugal										2.07	
Russia										.61	
Spain										2.33	
Sweden		.05 ⁶	.13	5.3	6.8	8.6	1.6	1.5	1.6	1.16	
Switzerland		.38	.39	8.2	10.9	14.12	1.38	1.38	1.32	2.76	
United Kingdom	.37	.38	.39	27.5	29.8	30.60	.93	1.01	1.00	2.08	
United States	.43	.36	.28	.33	12.6	13.3 ^u	1.05	1.19	.93	1.00	

¹The figures for 1899-1900 are from Statistics published by the Board of Trade of Great Britain and Ireland. All others from Rowntree & Sherwell's "The Temperance Problem and Social Reform," ² 1889, ³ 1886-90, ⁴ 1887-9, ⁵ 1891-4, ⁶ 1893-4, ⁷ 1888-92, ⁸ 1894, ⁹ 1892-4, ¹⁰ 1893, ¹¹ 1899, ¹² 1888-92, ¹³ 1888-9, ¹⁴ Alcohol strength of beer taken at 5 per cent, for the United Kingdom and 4 per cent. elsewhere, Wine taken at 15 per cent. in the United Kingdom and United States, 12 per cent. in Italy, 10 per cent. elsewhere, except that in Norway, it has been taken at 15 per cent. since 1896. For the English colonies beer has been taken at 5 per cent. and wine at 12 per cent.

LIQUOR CONSUMED IN THE UNITED STATES.¹ DOMESTIC AND IMPORTED.

YEAR.	GALLONS CONSUMED.			PER CAPITA.			
	GALLONS CONSUMED.			PER CAPITA.			
	Spirits.	Wine.	Beer.	Spirits.	Wine.	Beer.	Total.
1876	59,983,890	20,161,808	308,336,387	1.33	.45	6.83	8.61
1880	63,528,694	28,329,541	414,220,165	1.27	.56	8.26	10.09
1885	70,600,092	21,900,457	506,131,866	1.26	.39	10.62	12.26
1890	87,829,562	28,956,981	855,792,335	1.40	.48	13.63	15.53
1895	77,828,561	19,644,049	1,043,292,106	1.13	.28	15.13	16.54
1900	97,248,382	30,427,491	1,221,500,160	1.27	.40	16.01	17.68
1902	107,452,151	49,754,403	1,381,875,437	1.36	.63	17.49	19.48
1903	117,242,148	38,719,355	1,449,679,952

The per capita has more than doubled in twenty-six years, but this is mainly due to the consumption of beer (largely caused by immigration), to a much less extent to the increased consumption of wine.

¹Compiled from United States Internal Revenue Reports.

The leading wine drinking countries of the world are in this order: France, Portugal, Spain, Italy, Switzerland; the leading beer drinking countries are: Belgium, the United Kingdom, Germany, Denmark, Austria; the leading countries in the consumption (per capita) of absolute alcohol are: France, Belgium, Switzerland, Denmark, Spain, Italy, Austria, Germany and the United Kingdom. The countries consuming the least alcohol per capita are; Canada and Norway, Russia, New Zealand, the United States and Holland. The use of wine is on the increase in Belgium, France, Germany, Norway, Spain, Sweden and the United Kingdom. It is on the decrease in Austria, Canada, Holland, Hungary, Italy, New Zealand and the United States.

The use of beer is on the increase in Austria, Belgium, Denmark, France, Germany, Hungary, New Zealand, Norway, Russia, Sweden, Switzerland, the United Kingdom and the United States. It is on the decrease in Canada and Italy.

The use of spirits is on the increase in Austria, Belgium, Denmark, France, Germany and the United Kingdom. It is on the decrease in Canada, Holland, Italy, New Zealand, Norway, Portugal, Russia, Spain, Switzerland and the United States.

The use of all three is on the increase in Belgium, France and Germany. The use of all three is on the decrease in Canada and Italy.

TEMPERANCE AND ECONOMICS.

The above figures show that of the great commercial and manufacturing countries of the world, the United States has by far the lowest per capita consumption of alcohol. The per capita consumption of the United Kingdom and Germany is twice, and that of France three times that of the United States. It is impossible to disassociate this fact from that of the growing economic superiority of the United States. See also "Food and Economics."

LIQUOR INTERESTS AND POLITICS.

These are well known under every system of the excise laws, in prohibition, local option, high license, and the dispensary system. Messrs. F. W. Wines and John Koven, in their "The Liquor Problems in its Legislative Aspects," (2d Ed. 1898,) state that under the restrictive system in Boston in 1889, the chairman and 73 members of the city central committee of the dominant party were liquor dealers. How concentrated too was the liquor power may be seen by the fact that at that time 25 wholesale dealers were sureties for 1030 saloon keepers, assuming a liability of \$2,060,000. Under the license system in Philadelphia in 1894 according to the same authority, of the 8 Philadelphia State Senators whose terms expired that year, 6 were signers, counselors, or bondsmen, for liquor dealers in the last license court. Of Philadelphia's 39 State representatives 30 signed license applications or liquor bonds in that year. In New York City in 1884, according to an investigation of the Church Temperance Society, out of 1,002 political meetings 633 were held in and 86 next door to saloons, nearly 72 per cent. in all. January 29, 1894, the *Wine and Spirit Gazette* said: "The liquor vote of this State, a good deal more than 120,000 strong, can, if it will, control all legislation at Albany." February 20 of that year it said, "There are nearly 200,000 voters in this State who live by the saloon."

Today the liquor interest is still more concentrated. The Whiskey Trust organized in 1887, under the name of the Distillers' and Cattle-Feeders' Trust, was early changed into a single corporation. According to the *World Almanac*, the Distillers' Securities Corporation has a common stock of \$32,500,000 and bonds of \$16,000,000 more. The political power of these \$50,000,000 in the liquor business can be imagined. Of England, Messrs. Rowntree & Sherwell (*The Temperance Problem and Social Reform*, p 107) quote Lord Rosebery as saying, "If the state does not soon control the liquor traffic, the liquor traffic will control the state."

SOCIAL PROGRESS

LIQUOR OCCUPATIONS IN THE CENSUS.

	Male.	Female.	Total.
Saloon keepers	81,789	2,086	83,875
Bartenders	88,497	440	88,937
Brewers and maltsters	20,709	275	20,984
Distillers and rectifiers	3,115	30	3,145

Large as the numbers given are, it does not include employees of distilleries, nor either owners or employees of wholesale liquor houses, nor a large number of others who are engaged in the business.

THE DRINK BILE OF THE NATION.

(From the Prohibition Year Book, 1904.)

An article in the *Chicago Tribune* shows that the people of the United States spend \$174,965,625 annually for literature, including newspapers, periodicals and books, divided as follows:

Newspapers	\$75,749,654
School books and juvenilia	30,665,971
Magazines and periodicals	12,250,000
Novels	17,600,000
Miscellaneous and technical	38,700,000
Total	\$174,965,625

The same article compares this with the nation's annual drink bill, which it places at \$1,249,191,553. In other words, according to this authority, the American people pay every year \$1,074,225,928 more for intoxicating liquors than for literature of all kinds.

TOBACCO WITHDRAWN FOR CONSUMPTION.

(From the United States Internal Revenue Receipts.)

	1903	1904	Increase	Decrease
Cigars, weighing more than 3 pounds per thousand no.	6,786,390,533	6,707,471,863
Cigars, weighing not more than 3 pounds per thousand no.	640,499,870	696,844,907	56,345,037
Cigarettes, weighing not more than 3 pounds per thousand no.	3,031,893,732	3,226,682,261	194,788,529
Cigarettes, weighing more than 3 pounds per thousand no.	9,679,936	8,421,610	1,258,326
Snuff lbs.	18,840,747	20,157,580	1,316,833
Tobacco, chewing and emoking lbs.	310,654,639	328,650,710	17,996,071

(From the United States Tobacco Journal, July, 1904.)

The output of our cigar industry during the fiscal year closed June 30, amounted to 7,404,316,770, showing a decrease of 78,918,670 in full-fledged cigars; but there was an increase of 52,978,537 in the output of little cigars, thus cutting down the total decrease of our cigar industry to about twenty-six millions. But the pangs of this slight decrease must soften in consideration of the increase of one thousand million in three short years since 1901. To produce this quantity of cigars over one hundred and thirty million pounds of leaf were required. The foreign leaf that entered into this production amounted to about twenty-two million pounds leaving a supply of a hundred and eight millions for our domestic growth.

The output of our cigar industry has nearly doubled in eight years.

LOCAL OPTION.

PROHIBITION TERRITORY

- Alabama—20 prohibition counties, 11 dispensary, 35 license.
 Arkansas—44 counties prohibition, 29 license, 2 part prohibition, part license.
 California—175 towns and cities
 Colorado—50 towns and cities.
 Connecticut—94 prohibition, 74 license towns.
 Delaware—Half the State.
 Florida—32 out of 45 counties prohibition; partial prohibition in other 13; only 125 saloons in entire State.
 Georgia—104 counties prohibition; 33 license and dispensary.
 Illinois—650 towns and cities prohibition.
 Indiana—140 towns prohibition.
 Iowa—All the State, except 25 cities.
 Kansas—Prohibition.
 Kentucky—47 counties total prohibition; 35 counties with one license town each; 19 counties with 2 license towns each; 18 counties unrestricted license.
 Louisiana—20 out of 59 counties.
 Maine—Prohibition.
 Maryland—15 out of 24 counties.
 Massachusetts—20 license, 13 no-license cities; 83 license, 237 no-license towns.
 Michigan—400 towns and cities.
 Minnesota—400 towns and cities.
 Mississippi—65 out of 75 towns.
 Missouri—12 out of 115 counties, and many small towns.
 Nebraska—250 towns and cities.
 New Hampshire—144 towns prohibition; 60 towns and 11 cities license.
 New Jersey—200 towns and cities.
 New York—Cities have license by State law; of the 934 towns having the right of local option, 309 have total prohibition.
 North Carolina—Local option bill passed in spring of 1903.
 North Dakota—Prohibition.
 Ohio—176 towns prohibition under Beal law; several more under old law.
 Pennsylvania—20 counties and 600 towns and cities.
 Rhode Island—20 towns and cities.
 South Carolina—Dispensary law covers State.
 Tennessee—Whole State prohibition except 8 cities of over 5,000 population.
 Texas—141 counties prohibition; 57 partial prohibition; 48 license.
 Vermont—138 towns prohibition; 83 license.
 Virginia—Local option bill passed in spring of 1903. Richmond is the only important city without prohibition.
 West Virginia—40 out of 54 counties.
 Washington—50 towns and cities.
 Wisconsin—300 towns and cities.
 Many residential districts in Cleveland, Columbus, and other large cities.

CONCLUSION OF JOSEPH ROWNTREE AND ARTHUR SHERWELL.

After a minute and painstaking study, the above writers in their "The Temperance Problem and Social Reform" (1900), come to this conclusion (p. 253): "Local prohibition has succeeded precisely where State prohibition has succeeded, namely, in rural and thinly peopled districts, and in certain small towns. Except for certain suburban districts, where there is an effective 'safety valve,' in the shape of neighboring facilities for the purchase of drink, it is broadly true to say that local veto in America has only been found operative outside the larger towns and cities."

THE TEMPERANCE PROBLEM.

The several methods of dealing with the drink evil which have divided the advocacy of the friends of temperance, and which are herein presented, are the Gothenburg or Scandinavian System, the English Public House Trust, the South Carolina Dispensary System, Local Option, Prohibition, and the Anti-Saloon League. An account of the "Subway Tavern," kindly furnished by the president of the Subway Tavern Company, has been added because the exceptional character of its opening has invested it with an interest which is altogether disproportionate to its importance. These statements have in each instance been prepared by a specialist who sympathizes with the methods he describes.

The very fact that so many remedies are urged is evidence that no one of them is altogether adequate.

Reformers are strongly disposed to advocate some one remedy not only as a "sure cure," but as the "only cure"; hence the division of their ranks into hostile camps which renders the needed coöperation impossible.

This narrowness of vision is due to a common failure to perceive the complex character of social problems, and their relations to each other as causes and effects.

Says Professor Francis Peabody: "There is no such thing as the complete and immediate solution of special problems which are inextricably involved in the general progress of social evolution. The whole social body moves together if it moves at all."

This does not mean that in the temperance reform nothing should be attempted because nothing can be done. It means that we should undertake the practicable, and not invite failure and ultimate apathy by attempting the impossible.

Of course prohibition solves the problem wherever it can be effectively applied; but it seems to be quite clear that, at the present stage of public sentiment, prohibition cannot be enforced in large cities; so that the practical question is how to deal with urban populations—a question of increasing importance, because of the disproportionate growth of the city.

To do nothing is to permit things to go from bad to worse. To enact laws which all experience declares cannot be enforced is to undermine popular respect for law, which is to aggravate one of the most serious of our national evils.

Meanwhile, the moral aspects of the temperance reform should enlist an earnest activity as the legal. It is to be hoped that the Lincoln Legion, an account of which is given us by its founder, Dr. Howard Russell, may do as much for this generation as the Murphy movement and the Washingtonian movement accomplished one and two generations ago.

THE ANTI-SALOON LEAGUE AND THE LINCOLN LEAGUE.

BY REV. HOWARD H. RUSSELL, D.D., FOUNDER AND ORGANIZER OF THE LEAGUE.

On Sunday night, June 4, 1903, a union meeting of churches was held in the "First Church," in Oberlin, Ohio. The Rev. Dr. James Band, the pastor of the church, at the opening of the service, declared his belief that the meeting would prove historic. Professor G. W. Shurtleff introduced the speaker of the evening. He said: "Mr. Russell has already done an important work in securing the enactment of the Township Local Option law in the Ohio legislature in 1888, and the officers of the Oberlin Temperance Alliance believe that under his leadership the plans which he will unfold to-night will develop a permanent and powerful organization against the liquor traffic in Ohio."

The plan presented for the consideration of the people that night was that an interdenominational and omnipartisan federation of the churches of the State be enlisted, to carry forward a persistent campaign of agitation to arouse sentiment and then to concrete that sentiment into the enforcement of existing

statutes and the enactment of better laws as rapidly as possible. A unanimous rising vote approved the movement and \$3,000 was soon raised in Oberlin toward the support of the league. Doubtful as the enterprise seemed to many, the times proved ripe for the movement, and within five year the whole state was aflame with steady enthusiasm. From Ohio the movement has swept over the whole country, until in forty-two States and Territories a similar organization in each is now strongly established; more than four hundred employees serve the league throughout the country, and there will be raised in the national and State leagues the current year more than \$400,000.

The marvellous growth of the Anti-Saloon League is due to the sane and practical basis of its constituency and methods. It was foreseen at the outset that a real confederacy of the churches for temperance work would require the elimination of all partisanship from its system. Political results must indeed be reached, but it was believed this could be done without antagonizing the party alliance of any voter, so the League proposed to enlist the members of all political parties as well as of all religious denominations, and its victories attest the wisdom of its original constitution.

In this way, in Ohio, during the past nine years, eighty-seven different men have been defeated upon their record, either for re-nomination or re-election. More than twice that number have been assisted by the League and thus saved unharmed when they were opposed by the liquor dealers because of their record in favor of reasonable measures to protect communities against the evils of the liquor traffic.

In December, 1895, a National League was formed under the name of the American Anti-Saloon League in a convention held at Washington, D. C. The National League has extended the State Leagues throughout almost all the States and Territories of the Union. Four years ago a National Headquarters was opened in the Bliss Building, overlooking the Capitol grounds in the city of Washington. The Rev. E. C. Dinwiddie has had charge of the Legislative Department of the work at the Capitol. Under his leadership, backed by an influential Legislative Committee at the Capitol, several victorious campaigns have been carried through to secure advancing temperance legislation in the halls of Congress. For twelve years before the Anti-Saloon League opened its headquarters at Washington, not a single effective law to the advantage of the temperance reform had been passed by both houses of Congress. The League by no means claims all the credit for the legislation which has been enacted since our headquarters was established in Washington. We must always remember the effective aid which has been rendered to all good causes of reform in recent years by the Woman's Christian Temperance Union. There is no more skilful worker in legislative lines than Mrs. Margaret Dye Ellis, who is the representative of the Union at Washington. The Reform Bureau has also participated in many of these efforts. It is perfectly true to say that the winning of these enactments would not have been achieved but for the presence of our League at Washington, and the fact that the agent of the League had behind him the thoroughly organized State Leagues with their voting constituency pressing for the passage of these measures by the Congress. The temperance cause has secured no more useful legislation during recent years than abolition of the liquor saloon at the army posts of the country. The Anti-Saloon League and its contemporary organizations have not only succeeded in preventing the repeal of the Anti-Canteen Law, so called, but they have strengthened the fortifications in such a way as to surely prevent its repeal in the future. Our National League has inaugurated and achieved at the National Capitol one of the most remarkable campaigns for providing for substitutes for the saloon which has thus far been accomplished. The League secured the passage of an amendment to army appropriation bills by which three appropriations of half a million each, and a total of \$1,500,000 was set apart for the erection and maintenance

of post exchange buildings at the army posts. These are to be recreation buildings where the soldiers can find the comfort of reading and writing rooms, libraries, gymnasium, baths and other attractions at the army post free from the presence of alcoholic liquors. This is the largest sum thus far appropriated by any government for substitutes for the saloon.

THE LINCOLN LEGION.

The Lincoln Legion was launched at Oberlin, on October 21, 1903, at the time of the holding of the tenth anniversary of the organization of the Anti-Saloon in Ohio.

The temperance reformation has hitherto made headway in its progress, like the eagle in its flight, with two pinions: there were the moral suasion and the legal suasion wings. Of the two, the legal suasion wing has been most used in recent years. It is high time to make a general and thoroughly united effort to bring about a general revival of gospel temperance and pledge signing throughout the whole country. The Anti-Saloon League has been looking for several years for a leader for this important work.

It was the writer's privilege and honor to find the leader, as the result of an interview with a prosperous farmer named Cleopas Breckenridge, living near Springfield, Ill., who met me some months ago at that city and told me the following facts: "When he was a boy ten years of age, he lived where he now does, 16 miles northeast of Springfield, where his father tilled the land before him. One summer day in 1846 his father came home and announced that there would be a temperance meeting the following afternoon at the new log schoolhouse a mile and a half distant from the farm. The family went and the people gathered from all that part of Sangamon County. The meeting was held in the open air and the people sat upon the logs of wood and boughs of trees that were left over. The speaker that day was a young lawyer from the county seat, the city of Springfield. He made a very earnest plea for total abstinence from the liquor habit and gave some good reasons why every one should sign a pledge of abstinence. After he had finished his speech he took a paper out of his pocket and said: 'I have here a pledge which I have written and signed myself and am asking my neighbors, so far as they are willing to do so, to sign it with me.' It was passed around and a large number signed it. Then Mr. Breckenridge, his face lighting up as he remembered the occurrences of that day, said: 'The first thing I knew, the speaker was standing right in front of me. As I looked up into his face, he said: 'Sonny, don't you want your name on this pledge?' I answered, 'Yes, sir.' He said, 'You know what it means—that you are not to drink intoxicating liquor as a beverage.' I answered, 'Yes, sir, I know what it means.' He then signed my name upon the pledge, knowing that a boy of my age in those days could not write his own name, and then reaching down, he laid his hand upon my head, and said, 'Now, sonny, you keep that pledge and it will be the best act of your life.'

"The man who spoke that day at the South Fork school house and signed my name upon the pledge and laid his hand in blessing upon my head, was Abraham Lincoln." The Lincoln pledge is as follows: "Whereas, the use of alcoholic liquors as a beverage is productive of pauperism, degradation and crime, and believing it our duty to discourage that which produces more evil than good, we therefore pledge ourselves to abstain from the use of intoxicating liquors as a beverage."

During the past year more than 225,000 persons have enrolled in the Lincoln Legion by signing the Lincoln Pledge. Enrolled signers are formed into a very simple order by hundreds, thousands, County Divisions and State Divisions. It is expected that in each locality at least one annual re-union shall be held, preferably upon Lincoln's birthday to celebrate that important anniversary, and honor Lincoln's memory with a temperance service.

THE GOTHENBURG SYSTEM.

ARTHUR SHERWELL.*

The principle which underlies the entire Company System in Scandinavia is the elimination of private profit from the retail sale of spirits. Under this system the retail sale of spirits is taken out of private hands and placed under local public control which may be exercised either directly through a municipality or through a philanthropic company acting in association with the municipality, but always under conditions laid down by the central government. In Sweden the control is inadequate; in Norway it is complete and efficient.

The removal of the sale from private hands to public control is no mere detail of administrative reform. The inevitable antagonism between the aspirations of trade to extend itself, and measures whose aim is to discourage consumption, has never, in England, been overcome. It is the distinctive and peculiar merit of the Gothenburg System that it gets rid of this antagonism, and in so doing brings the widest range of both restrictive and constructive reforms within reach of easy attainment.

It is sometimes assumed that the sole merit of the Gothenburg System is that it prevents the pushing of sales by the bartender. This is a strangely inadequate conception of its scope and working.

In Gothenburg, the extraordinary reduction in the number of drink shops, the shortening in the hours of sale, the raising of the age at which young persons can be served, the abolition of sales on credit, of gambling, and of the immoral accessories of the public house—the absence, in short, of all pushing or stimulating of sales, whether by the bartender or by the principals who determine the policy of the public house, illustrates how wide is the difference in the conduct of the trade according to whether “men run after liquor or it runs after them.”

THE FOLLOWING ELEVEN ADVANTAGES ARE CLAIMED FOR THE GOTHENBURG SYSTEM.

1. Alone of all the systems that have been adopted, it secures a divorce between politics and the drink traffic. Drink selling once divorced from politics can no longer serve as an instrument of corruption, and one of the greatest obstacles to social reform is thus overcome.
2. When no political party is fettered by trade support, and the vested interests now associated with it are destroyed, a large body of temperance sentiment is set free, and the way made easy for progressive temperance reforms.
3. A trade universally recognized as dangerous is taken out of the hands of the private dealer, who naturally seeks to extend it, and is brought under effective restriction and control.
4. This restriction, being locally applied under local representative authority, keeps pace with the temperance sentiment of the locality. The end sought is the reformation of popular habits, and it is reached by a series of evolutionary stages, each of which finds its sanction in advancing public sentiment.
5. If, as seems clear, prohibition is at present impossible in large towns, the controlling system provides what is incomparably the least harmful safety-valve. In Scandinavian towns there is no club difficulty, and no driving of the traffic below the surface.
6. The number of licensed houses can be reduced to the lowest limits which public opinion will support, while the difficulty that exists under private ownership in singling out any particular house to be closed is avoided.
7. Sales on credit and all the adventitious attractions of the public house are done away with.
8. Gambling and all the immoral accessories of the public house are abolished.
9. By-laws for the regulation of the trade can be readily enforced and quickly adapted to the special needs of the locality.
10. The controlling system secures for the community the vast monopoly profits which now go to those interested in the trade, and makes it possible to use them for the establishment of adequate counteracting agencies.
11. The system enlists the active coöperation of good citizens, and is responsive to an enlightened public opinion.

* “The Temperance Problem and Social Reform. Popular Edition, pp. 153-4.

Wages of unskilled laborers have increased during the thirty-eight years since 1865, 80 to 90 per cent., a much higher rate than the wages of skilled laborers.

As a temperance measure the System has succeeded so well that in 1898 the Bishop and Dean of Gothenburg together with thirty clergymen, petitioned the Royal Governor to apply the same restrictions to the sale of beer.

LOCAL OPTION.

REV. PURLEY A. BAKER, GENERAL SUPERINTENDENT OF THE AMERICAN ANTI-SALOON LEAGUE, COLUMBUS, OHIO.

Local option is prohibition brought down to the level of a workable public sentiment. The difference between the local optionist and the extreme prohibitionist is not in kind but in the size of the political units. Local option crystallizes public sentiment in a given community and brings it to bear upon the liquor question for immediate results. State-wide prohibition is after all but a large kind of local option.

The principle of local option does not refuse to abolish saloons where it can, because it cannot yet abolish them everywhere it would. It is sometimes argued that local option is a compromise with evil. This is not the case. It is prohibitory to the full extent of the public sentiment existing.

It is likewise argued that the saloon is an evil demanding the enactment of prohibitory laws the same as theft or murder. But persons presenting this argument forget that all agree that to steal or murder is wrong, but all do not agree that the traffic in intoxicating liquors is wrong. Vast numbers of our population, who must be regarded as good citizens because they are thrifty and law-abiding, do not believe that the traffic in and use of intoxicating liquors are wrong. With these people a long course of education is necessary to bring them to a full realization and recognition of the immorality and crime attendant upon the traffic in intoxicating liquors.

There are few better methods of education for accomplishing this work, than the advocacy of the local option principle. The agitation leading up to the annual or biennial local option elections in the different political units, is of immense educational value, and furnishes its advocates frequent and full opportunities for the discussion of the prohibition principle. Every municipality, township or county that abolishes the saloons is, by the beneficial effects of this act, a standing argument for the extension of the principle to the larger political units. As the steam in the boiler increases in pressure with the action of the engine, so does the public sentiment of the people develop in proportion to the frequency of the opportunities of putting it into effective operation.

The solution of the liquor problem is too great a task to be accomplished by any one church or political party. We are coming steadily to recognize the necessity of bringing to bear upon it the mobilized public sentiment of all churches and all parties. This can be done only by the separation of the question from all other essential public and political issues of government. Such a separation allows the church to assume its proper place in the problem of temperance reform, and furnishes frequent opportunities for the exercises of its gifts and graces.

Again, laws abolishing the liquor traffic are not self-acting. No law is operative that has not a public sentiment behind it.

The merits of local option may be seen most clearly in what has been already accomplished. With the exception of three States in the Union, the large and increasing territory that is under prohibition has been made so directly by the operation of local option laws. Very much more than a majority of the counties in the Southern States are under prohibition through local option; and in some

of the States, like Tennessee and Georgia, saloon territory is the exception. Besides, a large part of the most of the counties that have not abolished saloons is under prohibition. What is true in the South is likewise true, although not to such an extended degree, in practically all of the Northern States. For example, in Ohio, where, because of numerous large cities the liquor interest has been deeply entrenched, under the operation of township and municipal local option laws more than two-thirds of the territory is under prohibition. Of the 1,371 townships in the State, over 1,000 of them have no saloon; and of the 763 incorporated villages and cities of the State, 436 have abolished saloons; and the no-saloon territory is constantly increasing. This has all been brought about through the operation of local option laws. In addition to this, Ohio has a District Local Option Law, which, although greatly mutilated by the act of the Governor after its passage, has nevertheless made it possible to banish saloons from many residential districts in most of our cities. The effort to put these local option laws in operation has developed a sustained public sentiment, which in most instances compels the enforcement of the law. It has unified and given direction to the efforts of the church against the liquor traffic. The operation of the law makes possible increased legislation for its application to still larger political units. Hence we conclude that local option is the gradual and natural approach to the ultimate overthrow of the beverage liquor traffic.

PROHIBITION.

JOHN G. WOOLEY.

The body politic is simply the individual citizen multiplied. It has the same weaknesses, temptations, obligations, and potentials. There is no qualitative difference between product and multiplicand. The test of a reform proposition for the commonwealth, is the trial of it on the common man.

The solid consensus of the whole drink world, including drinkers, doctors, divines, settlement students, rescue workers, the Salvation Army, the American Volunteers, the Keeley Institutions, is that personal prohibition is the only remedy, and the only safety for the individual.

If there is any fallacy in applying this result to the study of the collective organism, it does not appear to me. The drink problem in a man's life, speaking broadly, is simply a question of his strength to enact and to enforce within himself a prohibitory law.

Experiments in liquor legislation confirm this reasoning. All the foods and soft drinks and grains of which such magical effects are predicated, have been staples in the average saloon for many years, and a rather intimate knowledge of the subject has shown me that very rarely does a barkeeper *urges* intoxicants upon a customer in preference to food, soft drinks, or tobacco.

As to tables, and comforts of one sort or another, and good order, and caution about minors and habituals, they are an old story to every saloonkeeper. In short, all the "improvements" proposed for saloons are simply poor imitations of regular features of the "good" saloon, but no "good" saloon ever cured, or helped to cure, a drinker. But, on the other hand, "good" saloons are the best of all recruiting places for the inebriate army.

Prohibition is the American method of dealing with the drink problem. The people have been educated along that line, and no other. The Prohibition party, especially, has taught the nation that for forty years; and its faithful work is telling now, not, perhaps, upon its own growth, but in an avalanche of general prohibition sentiment in all parties and all sections.

The Woman's Christian Temperance Union, the most intelligent, diligent, and instructed of reform organizations for the last quarter of a century, is unanimous for prohibition, as against the various proposals for regulation, and now the Anti-Saloon League forges to the front of the movement with prohibition for its battle-cry and working theory. Tennessee has marshaled the

schoolhouse and the saloon for a finish fight, and almost swept the liquor traffic from her borders. Texas is a close second. North Carolina, Oklahoma, Arkansas, Virginia, not to speak of Maine, Massachusetts, and North Dakota, Oregon, and the rest, show inspiring gains.

No mere local prohibition of the sale of alcoholic beverages will be successful. The federal government must quit nullifying the local law, and must exert its own proper police power in the District of Columbia, the Colonies and the Territories, at least to put the brand of its disfavor on a business that is against good morals, good health, good laws, good law-enforcement, good education, and good times.

Meantime over the whole plain of expediency, and the immediate-practicability argument, the high white mountain-top of truth looks down, admonishing that the one sure social service, outworking in every direction, and resting not at all, day or night, is to "cease to do evil, and learn to do well"—man, woman, or government.

THE PUBLIC HOUSE TRUST MOVEMENT IN ENGLAND.

FURNISHED BY EARL GREY.

The Central Public House Trust Association was formed in August, 1901, for the purpose of organizing the Public House Trust movement.

The object of the movement is to apply the principle of disinterested management to licensed houses.

The movement seeks to safeguard the public by promoting in each county a local Trust Company, which shall acquire as many existing licensed houses as possible, and wherever the justices decide that a new license is wanted, shall demand on public ground, to be given the license with a view to its being managed as a trust on behalf of the community.

The principle underlying the temperance reform at which these trust companies are aiming is the elimination of the element of personal profit from the sale of alcoholic liquors. Accordingly, the dividend payable on the capital subscribed is limited to 5 per cent. per annum, and thus the shareholders have only a nominal monetary interest in the trade. All surplus profits are handed to a council to be applied to objects of public benefit other than those properly chargeable to the rates, the provision of counter-attractions to public houses being especially kept in view.

The houses under trust management are conducted as refreshment houses rather than as mere drinking bars; food, as well as non-intoxicating drinks, including tea, coffee, and cocoa are as readily served to customers as beer or spirits; and the food and drink supplied are of the best quality obtainable. The managers are paid a fixed salary. They have no interest whatever in the profits arising from the sale of intoxicants, and are, in consequence, under no inducement to push this part of the trade. On the other hand, they are encouraged to promote the sale of food and non-intoxicants.

Further, the elimination of the element of private profit in the sale of alcoholics places the interest of a manager on the side of law and order, and removes the antagonism which at present exists between the interest of the retailer of drink and the public welfare.

The assertion of Messrs. Rowntree and Sherwell, never yet disputed, that the net profits realized during the year 1899 by the public houses and beer shops of the United Kingdom amounted to the huge figure of £19,400,000, shows how great a loss the nation has sustained from a licensing system which has allowed the high profits resulting from monopoly rights to be diverted from the pockets of the community to whom they belong to those of privileged individuals.

It has been recently ascertained that between 70 and 80 per cent. of the public houses are now in the hands of the big brewery companies; that is to say, these companies have either bought the houses outright or have by other means obtained a financial hold on the establishment, so that the house is "tied" to the brewery. The first object of this "tie," and its first consequence, is the condition that all liquors shall be bought from the brewery.

The following are extracts from the instructions drawn up by the People's Refreshment House Association for the use of their managers and adopted by the various Public House Trust Companies.

The manager placed in charge of a public house belonging to the association must bear in mind that he has been appointed by the Council to conduct the management on certain fixed principles.

These principles are:

1. That the general arrangement and management of the house shall be on the lines of a house of refreshment, instead of a mere drinking bar.
2. That food and a good variety of non-intoxicant drinks shall be easily accessible to customers as beer and spirits.
3. That the licensing laws enacted by Parliament for the regulation of public houses, and the promotion of temperance, shall be most strictly carried out in every particular.
4. That the holder of a license is in a sense a servant of the public, and that he must study the comfort, well-being, and health of his customers; that his house must therefore be scrupulously clean, and that the rooms most used by the public must be comfortably arranged, well warmed in winter, and well ventilated.

The tariff of prices is to be placed conspicuously in the bar, taproom, and parlour, and the prices thereon advertised must not be departed from.

Intoxicants are not to be exposed with a view to attract customers, but every means is to be taken on the other hand to expose food and non-alcoholic drinks, so as to encourage their consumption.

The number of Public House Trust Companies formed and registered at the end of September, 1904, was:

34 for England
1 for Wales
17 for Scotland
1 for Ireland

In addition to these registered companies with a total subscribed capital of over £300,000, committees have been appointed in those parts of the United Kingdom which are not yet provided with trust companies for the purpose of promoting their formation.

The number of licensed houses secured for trust management during the year 1903 was 48, or an average of nearly one new license per week. The total number of licenses under trust management at the end of September, 1904, was 144.

Further, the promises of landowners to hand over to the trust companies of their respective counties the licensed houses on their estates, on the expiration of current leases, warrant the anticipation that the number of licensed houses that will come under trust management from this source alone will in the near future more than double the number of those already secured.

In various parts of Great Britain, in Ontario, Manitoba, South Australia, New Zealand, Tasmania, Mauritius, Natal, and the Transvaal, active agencies are at work forming a public opinion in favor of applying trust principles to the management of monopoly houses.

From individual reports all looking one way, we can only give the following: In their annual report for 1903, the Executive Council of the People's Refreshment House Association stated:

'The Waterman's Arms,' Bankside, Southwark (the first 'Trust' house in London), was opened for business, after rebuilding, on January 14, 1904. Situated in a working class district, it now does a busy trade in cheap breakfasts, dinners and teas. At the bar in the workmen's dining-hall about eight gallons of tea and coffee are sold by 10 A.M. each day. There is a saloon dining-room on the first floor, in which luncheons and teas are provided at a moderate price. The takings for food and temperance drinks are frequently larger than the sales at the bar, though under the previous tenant practically nothing was sold but beer and spirits.

It is to be noted that the takings for alcoholics in 1903 were about £420 less than in 1902 at the houses managed throughout the two years, and that the years 1902 and 1901 had already shown a decrease of nearly £500 as compared with 1900. On the other hand, every facility is given for the supply of tea, coffee, etc., and there has been a steady demand for bowls of cheap soup at several of our country inns.

THE SOUTH CAROLINA DISPENSARY.

W. O. TATUM, COMMISSIONER STATE DISPENSARY.

It has been said that the wisest legislation consists of compromises. If so, the dispensary system is wise legislation, because it is a compromise between two conflicting remedies. What was intended to be a decisive battle between these two remedies was fought in this State in 1892. In that year the license system was in vogue in most of the counties of this State. In some few the liquor traffic was prohibited. It was sought to extend this prohibition to the entire State. The Democracy carries all elections in this State and its nominations are made primary elections. In 1892 the Prohibitionists were strong enough in South Carolina to force the State Democratic Executive Committee to provide special boxes in the primary held that year in which the Democratic voters could express a preference between license and prohibition. There were more votes for prohibition than for license, but the number of those who voted for prohibition was exceeded by the number of those who did not vote at all, thereby showing that neither solution was satisfactory to them.

B. R. Tillman, now United States Senator, was at that time governor of South Carolina. When the legislature met in the winter of 1892 a prohibition bill was introduced and its passage was urged on the ground that a majority had voted in the primary in favor of prohibition. All test votes showed that it had a majority in the legislature and would pass. While Mr. Tillman is by habit practically a teetotaler, he was opposed to the enactment of a prohibition statute for South Carolina, as he believed that it would aggravate rather than relieve the evils it was aimed at. His judgment was that no law can be enforced which is not believed in and supported by a majority of the people who must live under it. While a majority of those who voted had voted for prohibition those who had so voted were not much more than a third of the white voters of the State. In this dilemma, it was brought to his attention that the city of Athens, Ga., conducted a municipal dispensary for the sale of intoxicating liquors. He studied the Athens idea with the result that he broadened it out to fit a whole State. The prohibition bill before the legislature was amended at his instance so that it became the dispensary law. Six months were given those in the liquor business in this State in which to dispose of their stocks, and the dispensary law went into effect on July 1, 1893.

It was an innovation, and met the usual fate of innovations, no matter how pregnant with promised benefit. It was fought with relentless fury. The ablest lawyers in the State were retained to fight it in the courts. Legal attack after legal attack was aimed at the dispensary law, to have the courts set it aside as unconstitutional. These fights were carried through all the courts, even the Supreme Court of the United States. The dispensary withstood all these fights and now it is *res adjudicata* that the State has the right to sell liquor as an exercise of its police power. This principle has been affirmed by the highest legal tribunal of the land.

But it was not only in the courts that the dispensary law was fought. It had to meet political attacks no less fierce. The fire came from the two extremes which the dispensary sought to compromise. The liquor dealers did not relish being driven out of their profitable business. They and their friends sought to put out of office those who favored the dispensary law. They were too shrewd to make a direct fight. Until the dispensary law had a chance to prove its benefits by its operation, it was bitterly attacked by the prohibitionists. The element in favor of liquor selling by individuals backed the political fights of the prohibitionists, believing that if a prohibition law were enacted, its operation would be so unsatisfactory that the State would return to the license system of regulating the sale of liquor. The experience of some other States gave ground for this hope.

But the dispensary was as successful in meeting this fight as it had been in withstanding the legal attacks. It has now been in operation nearly eleven years and has more than fulfilled the hopes of those who devised the experiment. It is no longer an experiment. Its practical results have been so satisfactory as to leave the opposition practically without argument. Among its stoutest champions to-day are many prohibitionists who were once its deadliest enemies. So great a majority of the people of South Carolina now favor the dispensary law that it is to all intents and purposes as fixed on the statute books as the law against murder.

I have prepared a comparison which I think you will find instructive. Maine and Kansas have prohibition laws. Massachusetts tried prohibition and then gave it up in favor of what is generally regarded as the best law for license regulation of the liquor traffic. It is a local option law, with a license fee of not less than \$1,000. The number of licenses that can be issued is limited to one to one thousand inhabitants, except in Boston, where the limit is one to five hundred.

In the comparison I make, the figures of population are from the United States census of 1900, while the revenue figures are from the last report of the United States commissioner of internal revenue, for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1903.

In Maine, with a population of 694,466, there were 958 retail liquor dealers, 14 wholesale liquor dealers, 408 retail dealers in malt liquors, and 37 wholesale dealers in malt liquors.

In Kansas, with a population of 1,470,495, there were 2,822 retail liquor dealers, 22 wholesale liquor dealers, 303 retail dealers in malt liquors, and 107 wholesale dealers in malt liquors.

In Massachusetts, with a population of 2,805,346, there were 4,898 retail liquor dealers, 215 wholesale liquor dealers, 194 retail dealers in malt liquors and 402 wholesale dealers in malt liquors.

In South Carolina, with a population of 1,340,316, there were 490 retail liquor dealers, 3 wholesale liquor dealers, 44 retail dealers in malt liquors and 10 wholesale dealers in malt liquors. In South Carolina 113 of the retail liquor dealers, 2 of the wholesale liquor dealers, 33 of the retail malt liquor dealers and all of the wholesale dealers in malt liquors were State officials, selling according to law. The others were illicit dealers.

To make the comparison more instructive, it must be remembered that the percentage of negroes who drink is greater than that of whites. The percentage of illiteracy among the negroes is also greater. The records of the criminal courts of South Carolina show that the negroes have much less regard for the laws of the land than the whites.

South Carolina has 782,321 negroes, while the total of the other three States cited is but 85,296, as follows: Kansas, 52,003; Maine, 1,319; Massachusetts, 31,974.

Prohibition Kansas, with 130,000 more population than South Carolina and less than one-fifteenth as many negroes, had nearly six times as many retail

liquor dealers, more than seven times as many wholesale liquor dealers, about seven times as many retail dealers in malt liquors and nearly eleven times as many wholesale dealers in malt liquors.

Prohibition Maine, with about half the population of South Carolina and practically no negroes, had about twice as many retail liquor dealers, five times as many wholesale liquor dealers, nearly ten times as many retail dealers in malt liquors and nearly four times as many wholesale dealers in malt liquors.

In the face of these official figures, how can it longer be contended that prohibition prohibits? The test of practical results is all in favor of the dispensary.

In South Carolina liquor can only be sold between sunrise and sunset. This eliminates night drinking. It can only be sold in sealed packages of not less than a half pint nor more than $4\frac{1}{2}$ gallons, and cannot be drunk on the premises where sold. This goes a long way toward abolishing the treating system, which is generally regarded as one of the very worst features of the liquor business in licensed States, and is principally responsible for over-indulgence in alcoholic beverages. There is no credit. Cash must be paid for the liquid. Consequently the workingman's wages are not dissipated by credit drinking at a saloon before payday comes. Liquor cannot be sold to drunkards or minors. License laws ordinarily have such a restriction, but it is usually inoperative because it clashes with the selfish interest of the licensed liquor seller. In South Carolina it operates because increase of sales does not mean more profits to the salaried officer who conducts the sale of liquor. There is no inducement to drink liquor, no gilded bars and comfortable loafing places where intoxicating beverages are sold. All the tinsel is torn away and a man buys liquor as he goes into a grocery store to buy bottled pickles or catsup to carry home for use. The consequence is that even those who had formed the habit of drinking before the dispensary law was passed drink much less than they did when the bars were in operation, and the rising generations have no temptation to acquire the liquor-drinking habit. Sobriety steadily increases with the length of operation of the dispensary law.

Aside from its other good features, the dispensary law has especially commended itself to the women of the cities of South Carolina because it has done away with the saloons and their attendant crowd of loafers, who stood around the front doors and ogled women as they passed by. This is probably the first feature of the good work of the dispensary law to attract the attention of visitors from other States, especially women visitors. They never fail to comment upon it and praise the dispensary system.

SWITZERLAND AND RUSSIA.

In 1895 Russia, by way of experiment, established a Government spirit monopoly. In 1896 it became the common law of the Empire. Of its results the Report of the Russian Minister of Finance, January 31, 1899, says: "The Governors of the provinces where the new system is in force and the accounts communicated to the Minister of Finance, by the highest ecclesiastical authorities, by the officials of the nobility, by the Zemstvos, and by the municipalities are almost unanimous in bearing evidence to the salutary effects of the reform. The better quality of the brandy, the considerable reduction in the number of places of sale, the establishment of uniform prices strictly proportionate to the quantity sold, the impossibility of securing alcoholic drinks except for ready money—all these advantages and others which are brought about by the modification and sale of spirits under the care of the State, have already practically demonstrated their happy influence. Drunkenness has perceptibly diminished, debauchery, with its inevitable consequences, has given place to a

more regular (controlled?) use of alcohol; offences and crimes have become rarer." The report also speaks of the fiscal returns to the Government as favorable.

Switzerland established a Federal Alcohol Monopoly in 1887, but it applied only to the importation, manufacture, and wholesale distribution of spirits. It does not affect the retail trade.

See Bibliography, "Temperance."

THE SUBWAY TAVERN.

JOSEPH JONSON, JR., PRESIDENT SUBWAY TAVERN CO.

When one enters the Subway Tavern he sees first a double soda fount of handsome design, where every popular temperance drink is served. A man is not tempted right off to choose an alcoholic drink, because there is none to be bought at this counter.

The barroom itself is like any other saloon—perhaps we shall make it in time less like other saloons. But if it had been very unlike other saloons, drinking men would not have visited us at all, and as a substitute for a saloon we would have failed.

In the basement is a dining-room, where a midday dinner of five courses is served for a quarter. It is very good and is well patronized. It may be too good for the money. This we shall have also to decide later. At other hours the dining-room affords a good lounging-room, where men may sit and drink, instead of following the American habit of gulping and running.

The Subway Tavern is a saloon. It claims to be a better place for the poor man to come to than most of the others. The whiskey is the worst thing he gets in the Tavern. The management is not grasping for his wages. He does not meet prostitutes here, nor young persons of either sex. He sees no lewdness in pictures or elsewhere. His companionship is cleaner. Now, will not our enemies admit we are doing just a little? We do not claim to be doing miracles with men.

But we do urge that it is an absurdity to build a substitute for a saloon where drinking men will not go. Even a substitute for coffee must be drunk, and it must be in a cup and it must be like coffee. A substitute for a saloon where every visitor is already a teetotaler is no substitute at all. It is something else. It does not touch the drinking man, however good a thing it may be.

In the manner of handling drinking persons, and this is the main point, I hope we follow much the same plan as Earl Grey. We, of course, close on the legal hours. In fact, we close earlier than 1 o'clock almost every night. We do not serve to intoxicated persons or to minors. We have no back room for women. Women with escorts or in parties, provided they are orderly, may be served in the dining-room.

How do we know when not to serve a man? We use our common sense. A more delicate question is to know when to stop the visits of the steady patron who is hurting himself and his family. We have ejected hundreds of drunken men, chiefly wanderers from the Bowery, who thought the much heralded "bishop's inn" something of a joke.

We have given the diplomatic cold shoulder to the steady inebriate. But it must be understood that this man will go elsewhere if you do not let him drink in the Tavern. Therefore, we talk to him, not like a moralist, but as one friend would to another.

In some respects the visit of Bishop Potter was unfortunate, because it has evoked, apparently, to me, about all the bigotry there was left in the churches, and has made a lot of unthinking persons look upon the Subway Tavern as a religious, instead of a sociological experiment. It would be an impertinence for me to defend Bishop Potter, who is so amply able to defend himself. But I cannot help suggesting to the preachers who have described the imps of darkness

as dancing with delight at the opening of the Subway Tavern, that they withhold their judgment until the experiment is done. Most of them have utterly failed to get hold of the drinking man and apply the ineffable teachings of Christ to him. In the churches, where preaching is the chief business, may I ask what agencies, practical agencies, have they at work to cure the drinking evil? How many drunkards have set foot in their churches, or in their studies, much less in their pews? How many drinking men have these orators taken by the hand? You can't fight a man without striking him. You can't fight a vice without coming into contact with it. You can't even love a man without knowing him? How is the long-range shooting of pulpit orators going to reach the fellow in front of the bar?

Does it ever occur to these gentlemen to let the people who are right up against the drinking man have their day? Let them at least not say that we have failed before we have tried.

MODEL DWELLINGS.

The first "model" dwelling in New York City was erected in 1855 by "The Workmen's Home Association," organized by the Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor. It soon became one of the worst tenements in New York. In 1877 Mr. Alfred T. White, of Brooklyn, moved by English examples, built his "Home Buildings," which were a success socially and financially, earning 7½ per cent. the first year. An Improved Dwellings Association was formed in 1879 and erected an excellent group of buildings on First Avenue in Manhattan, still in good condition and having earned 5 per cent. each year. In 1896 the City and Suburban Homes Company was formed, under the leadership of Dr. E. R. L. Gould, which has erected two groups of buildings. Various commissions have been formed, culminating in the Tenement House Commission of 1900, and the passage of the Tenement House Law of 1901, so that "New York is teaching her sister cities by her old tenements how not to build and by her new how to build."

In England and on the Continent of Europe much more has been done. The Eighth Special Report of the United States Commission of Labor, by Dr. E. R. L. Gould, on the "Housing of the Working People," describes 115 enterprises of this kind. The general plan of these is that of a central courtyard, around which the buildings are grouped with two and three-room flats, every room opening on the outer air. The best-known of these enterprises, though only one among many in London, is that of the Peabody Fund. George Peabody in 1862 gave £150,000, and later increased it to £500,000 for erecting sanitary homes for the London poor. Under the management of the trustees this was used simply as capital, and more has been added, till the fund in 1893 was \$5,406,238.

There are numerous other such enterprises in London—some 600 "model" tenements in all, though not all of them are model. Many of them are simply commercial.

MUNICIPAL DWELLINGS.

Municipal undertakings are mainly confined to Great Britain. In 1866 Glasgow redeemed a tract of 86 acres and at large expense built new streets and houses, which it rents and has thus gained a revenue, slowly paying off the total cost, providing better homes and giving the city a valuable property. Liverpool by 1903 had erected 1,013 tenements; 66 one-apartment houses, 668 two-apartment houses, 227 three-apartment houses, 52 four-apartment houses, with 13 shops; 519 more tenements were under construction last year. Rents in these vary from 2s. to 5s. 6d. per week. London, in 1875-79, bought 42 acres and sold them to workmen at a net loss of over \$5,000,000. Between 1890 and 1900 she spent nearly \$4,000,000 in these ways. But the trouble with these plans was that they rehoused fewer people than they displaced. The London

efforts between 1890 and 1900 displaced about 15,000 and rehoused scarcely 10,000. The plan, therefore, has been developed of buying land outside of the city. Much the largest of these and the largest plan of this sort ever undertaken by any city, is the Tottenham scheme. Here, about six miles from London, the city has bought 225 acres, where there are to be 5,779 cottages or tenements over shops capable of housing 42,500 persons. Each cottage is to have its own garden; shaded roads 50 feet wide are to be opened; the river Mosselle flowing through it, is to have public gardens on its banks; a public library will be opened and in many ways it will be made a model town with easy and cheap access to London.

RESCUE WORK.

ORRIN B. BOOTH, FIELD SUPT. FLORENCE CRITTENTON RESCUE LEAGUE.

Only within the past thirty years has rescue work assumed a position among religious movements at all worthy a cause of such importance. The social evil has grown steadily more and more alarming during the last twenty-five years, threatening dire disaster unless checked through religious and educational means; and coupled with other vices—the liquor curse, the cigarette mania, the opium slavery, and other enthralling appetites and habits—presents a problem which may well arouse the serious consideration and demand aggressive effort of the minister, the sociologist, the teacher and the parent. Girls by the thousands—60,000 annually in this country, it is estimated—are entering lives of shame, or at least falling from virtue; while the seducers and patrons of erring and lost girls aggregate probably more than ten times that number. The church, the state, the home has no more important problem confronting it than the social evil. The apathy and neglect of parents regarding the enlightenment of children on matters of vital importance; the toleration and encouragement of, and even participation in, profits resulting from the traffic in girls on the part of officials sworn to suppress disorderly places, and the lack of a wholesome and outspoken public sentiment against the existence of evil conditions, make the solution of the question exceedingly difficult.

Several forms of work exist looking toward the rescue and upbuilding of the outcast and unfortunate, including rescue homes, industrial enterprises, rescue missions, colonization schemes, etc., etc. Probably, however, the large majority of the outcast class will necessarily be reached by personal visitation, and dealing with them in the circumstances and conditions in which they are found; *i. e.*, they must be sought after in evil places, on the streets, in the cheap lodging houses, in the prisons, or wherever they resort. Of course, the latter work is incomplete and lacking largely in practical help without the institutional side; but the institutional side alone will reach a proportionately small number—mostly those who voluntarily come to the institution for aid.

The great McAuley Water Street Mission has attracted world-wide attention by its successful work among the outcast, many hundreds of men having found, through its efforts, an avenue back into a good life. Details of its work may be obtained by application to 316 Water Street, New York City.

Twenty-two years ago, April, 1883, the Florence Crittenton Mission was established under interesting circumstances. Mr. Charles N. Crittenton, a wealthy druggist of New York City, had lost his daughter, Florence, through death. The strong man's heart was broken. He rebelled and was bitter against God for seven months. Then, through a verse of Scripture which came to his mind on the "L" road in New York, a change came in his life. Shortly after this he was invited to accompany a missionary into the slums. They went from one evil place to another, finally entering a room where were two erring girls. Mr. Crittenton told them of his affliction and leading into a different life. Upon leaving, the girls being in tears, Mr. Crittenton extended his hand to one named Nellie, saying: "Good-bye; God bless you; 'go, and sin no

more.' " This Scripture verse came back to Mr. Crittenton with great force. "Go, and sin no more!" Where will they go? No doors are open to them, excepting such as have been swinging in and out all these years. Later, there came to him the determination: "There shall be a place where girls such as these may find a haven of refuge and a way back into a good life." As a result of this night trip, there was opened the first Florence Crittenton Mission, at 29 (now 21-23) Bleecker Street, New York City. To-day there exist about sixty of these Homes for girls in the Crittenton chain, and about 4,000 girls annually are helped through these agencies, a goodly percentage of whom, according to Mr. Crittenton, are permanently reclaimed. The National Florence Crittenton Mission is nationally incorporated, and is the only organization of its kind which has received a national charter. The headquarters are at 218 Third Street, N. W., Washington, D. C., where further particulars regarding the movement may be obtained. Mr. Crittenton not only devotes his entire time to evangelistic and rescue work, travelling in his private car "Good News," but places a large income at the disposal of the national organizations. A monthly magazine is published in the interest of the general work.

The Door of Hope, organized a number of years ago by Mrs. E. M. Whittemore, of New York, has done great service to erring womanhood. The original Home has recently removed to Tappan, N. Y., where it has a large tract of land. Mrs. Whittemore is a woman of wonderful faith and charming personality. Over sixty of these Homes now exist in various parts of the country.

The Salvation Army, The Volunteers, the various rescue missions, the rescue homes, a Reading Room for Girls in Chinatown, New York (63 Bayard Street), and other agencies are doing noble service in this long neglected field. Recently the Methodist churches of New York City established a rescue mission on the Bowery.

Definite and aggressive rescue and preventive work along special lines and under improved methods is a crying need of the hour, especially when we consider the terrible nerve-shattering, brain-racking, body-and-soul destroying practices which, imported from a foreign land, are beginning to sap the foundations of American life, and already have brought to physical, mental, moral and spiritual ruin numbers of our sons and daughters. The enormity of the situation is but little realized except by those who have been placed in a position to know the evils which exist.

May educators, ministers, philanthropists, parents be aroused not only to the dangers confronting our young people, but to the necessity of reclaiming those who have gone down because of unfortunate heredity, evil environments, or that greatest of all causes for the downfall of the young—lack of proper information regarding the mysteries of life, accompanied by an intelligent warning concerning the pitfalls and snares which await unwary feet.

Akron, Ohio.

CHILD SAVING.

BY C. LORING BRACE, SECRETARY OF THE CHILDREN'S AID SOCIETY.

The principles laid down by the late Charles L. Brace, at first criticised and contested, are to-day accepted as the foundation of the child saving societies of the United States and Canada. These principles may be stated as follows:—

1. Avoid breaking up the family, the unit of society, and try to uplift the parents through the children. This can best be done through the medium of the day and evening industrial school, where the children receive not only an elementary education of mind and hand, but also a moral uplift, an appreciation of the importance of regularity and the value of work and a knowledge of a higher standard of living. Many are the devices of the teachers to make these schools interesting to the children they are trying to benefit—mothers' meetings,

which are eagerly attended by the women, not only for recreation, but for the opportunity offered to obtain lessons in needle work and cooking; ice cream treats and jollifications at holiday times for the mothers as well as the children; hot dinners to all children who require them; sympathy and material assistance to the parents at times of sickness or adversity; friendly visits by the teachers to the homes of the children, and finally the use of the school buildings in the evenings as clubrooms or for instruction in cooking, dressmaking, millinery, carpentry, basket weaving and cobbling, and occasionally for dancing, thus continuing the good influence among the children as they grow older.

To-day there are hundreds of so-called incorrigible truants from the public schools attending our industrial schools, and while their work is crude and their behavior often bad, the teachers put up with it patiently, realizing that this is the one last chance to wean the boys from their vagrant street life. If they can be induced to attend school for a year, it is found that as a rule they settle down to some degree of regularity and acquire pride in skillful workmanship. They are then encouraged to seek work in factories and work-shops where their manual dexterity, such as it is, gives them an advantage in wages over other boys, and they settle down to become useful workmen. This is truly a victory, and it is the recollection of many such victories which encourages our teachers to endure the aggravations and bad manners they must submit to in order to reach these wild lads.

Nor is it always necessary to remove the crippled and mentally defective children from their parents' care. In four of our schools, day classes for these little crippled ones have been established. They are brought to and from school in wagonettes, and surrounded with loving care and a wise training. Only the workers know the happiness these classes bring to the little unfortunates, especially when they find that they are learning to be useful at home. For the older ones we have opened trade classes—dressmaking for the girls and brushmaking for the boys. The patrons of these schools have formed committees to care for the children as their ailments and needs make necessary. These committees supply the extra nourishment, the special orthopedic apparatus, the wheel-chairs, the games and pleasures, the nurses who have professional oversight of their malformations, taking them when necessary to hospitals or visiting their homes to confer with parents. Besides all this there are attendants to carry the children up and down the tenement-house stairs and the expense of maintaining six wagonettes to bring them to and from school.

A yet sadder problem is the need of the mentally deficient. For many there is no help except to send them to the institutions for the feeble-minded. But for the children who are only mentally backward especial effort is made in the hope that better nourishment and more judicious and patient teaching may bring them up to normal intelligence. During the year we have established classes for these in our East Side and Rhinelander schools under trained teachers. A marked improvement in the children is noted. In our city there should be many classes for these backward children. Even if in the end they must be segregated in institutions for the feeble-minded, in the meantime the day schools cost the community only one-fifth as much for each child as an institution, and the children have the happiness of a useful and pleasant occupation and of living with their parents. Many a poor mother has thanked the teachers with tears of gratitude for their care and training of these backward children. Not only were the mothers hopeful of future development, but the dread of immediate separation was removed.

2. When children must be taken from their parents in order to rescue them from cruelty or evil surroundings, it should be done through the regular judicial process of a Children's Court, and they should be placed in charge of a philanthropic or religious society temporarily and boarded in the country or in an institution arranged on the cottage plan, to be as nearly like family life as

possible. Incurrible or wayward children who must be taken in charge by the State for discipline and training should be cared for in other institutions also arranged on the cottage or family plan. But it should be borne in mind that only when the probation officer fails in improving the home conditions should the children be removed. In most cases they should be sent home on probation, and they should attend day schools of the same character as our industrial schools. Situations at wages should be found for the older, and a careful, judicious, fatherly probation officer should be appointed to each fifty children, to guide them, advise them, see to it that parents or relatives or guardians treat them properly, under penalty of the law, and he should watch over the children until they are eighteen, with power to arrest and punish them if necessary. In this way, the boys and girls will become part of society in the natural way and will have a powerful friend to guide them. The cost of salary and expenses of the probation agents is but a fourth of the cost of the present plan of institutional maintenance.

3. When it is finally decided by the court that children must be permanently removed from parents or relatives, they, together with all orphans and abandoned children, should be placed out in good family homes. This is the most satisfactory work of benevolence in the whole field of child saving. It is economical, for the reason that the foster-parents cheerfully bear most of the expense. It is strikingly, one might say dramatically, successful in results, for the orphan or abandoned child with an outlook of misery and possibly crime before him is suddenly transplanted from the worst environment to the best—from the atmosphere of the streets to the bracing air of the farm, unhampered, and he has before him the unlimited career of a country-born American citizen.

Satisfactory as this work has proved, it must be remembered that carelessness or want of knowledge of the conditions among the people among whom these helpless children are placed may bring about evils greater than any they suffered under in their native environment. Such mistakes would be rare if all persons engaged in this work were as careful as the Children's Aid Society in studying the community before placing any children among them. The welfare of the children after being placed in good family homes is carefully looked after by experienced visitors, and a systematic correspondence conducted.

For the unruly also we have found this method successful. Many and many a parent has brought us his boy with a tragic story of disobedience, of evil gang influence and of petty crime with worse in prospect. For these all that is needed in most cases is the busy, cheerful life of a stock farm, with some especial responsibility in the matter of rearing a colt or a calf. As a rule, the boy who in the city was driven by his superabundant energy into conflict with authority, will in the country become a leading citizen. Such, indeed, was the career of our former ward, the present Governor of Alaska, the Hon. John G. Brady.

Since the founding of the Children's Aid Society in 1853, it has rescued and placed in family homes 23,528 orphans or abandoned children, provided situations at wages in the country for 25,527 older boys and girls, restored 5,857 runaway children to parents. Of those placed in family homes in the west the vast majority have become farmers or farmers' wives. Of the others we know of the following noteworthy careers:—

Governor of a State	1	Lawyers	34
Governor of a Territory	1	Physicians	17
Members of Congress	2	Postmasters	8
Sheriffs	2	Railroad Officials	3
District Attorneys	2	Railroad Men	30
City Attorney	1	Real Estate Agents	10
Members of State Legislatures	4	Journalists	15
County Commissioners	3	Teachers	82
Judges	2	High-School Principals	4
Bankers	27	Supt. of School	1
Merchants	22	Civil Engineer	1
Business Clerks	460	Clergymen	21

Over one thousand entered the Army and Navy.

From careful analysis of the records of all the children it is estimated that 87 per cent. are doing well, 8 per cent. were returned to New York, 2 per cent. died, one-quarter of one per cent. committed petty crimes and were arrested, and 2½ per cent. left their homes and disappeared.

4. Important as Children's Courts and probation officers are proved to be in the effort to keep those guilty of first offences out of the evil associations of prison, it is undoubtedly far more important to prevent crime, and it was for this object that the lodging-houses for homeless boys and girls were established by the Children's Aid Society. These are comfortable and homelike shelters and every effort is made to attract to them the wandering element from the Bowery and Printing House Square, and thus come to know the boys and girls and ascertain the cause of their homelessness, and, if possible, bring them to a better mode of life. We obtain a hold upon the semi-vagrant boys, the boys who hang about the cheap pool rooms and low resorts and who spend their earnings in dissipation, and when penniless, sleep in hallways and on steam gratings. It is our experience that when these vagrants can be attracted to the lodging-house it is often possible to wean them from their thriftless ways. Many are runaways, and the Superintendent soon discovers who have homes, notifies the parents and induces the boys to return to them. Hundreds of others who have no homes are induced to visit the Farm School, and all are encouraged to seek regular employment.

During the year 5,173 boys and girls were sheltered in these lodging-houses, and it is an interesting fact that although a large proportion of them have been inmates of institutions and many are lacking in stamina and moral sense, yet of this great number only twelve were arrested during the year. It is a proof that no homeless boy need steal or beg in order to live. In fact it would seem that a homeless boy in New York is under better guardianship than the tenement boy.

THE GREAT JUNIOR REPUBLIC.

BY ESTHER B. GEORGE.

The George Junior Republic was founded July 10, 1895, by William R. George, at that time a young business man in New York City.

The Junior Republic is located at Freeville, Tompkins Co., N. Y. Its object is to instil habits of thrift and obedience to law, of self-reliance, self-control, good citizenship, and religion in its broadest sense into the lives of boys and girls from fourteen to twenty-one years of age, whose natural tendencies and environments would lead them into viciousness. In addition, some who have not bad inclinations have become members of the little community to their great advantage.

Although the system is universally regarded as being unique on account of its wide divergence from the customary systems of training, it is, nevertheless, a marvellously simple method. In point of fact it is no more nor less than any little village in the State of New York. The young people buy and sell, have little or much according to their earnings, live in either homes or hotels, live under and enforce the laws of New York State, plus a few special ones of their own, have their own system of civil and criminal courts, a jail, police, bank, store, school, shops, paper, church, etc., etc., just the same as in the big republic, the only essential difference between their village and any other in the township is the fact the inhabitants thereof become voting citizens at the age of fourteen instead of twenty-one.

The association owns or controls at the present a little over 300 acres of land, with about thirty buildings.

At the present time there is a total population, including helpers of about 160 people. Two citizens have already come from abroad. The citizens in general come from all parts of the United States. Many more citizens could be taken providing the Board of Trustees had greater accommodations. The work is supported by voluntary subscription, payment for board in certain cases, and sales of mission furniture, chocolate and ginger wafers, and some other things produced by the citizens.

"Republics" have been established in Maryland and Pennsylvania, and another is about to be established at Litchfield, Conn. Over three hundred graduates are making their way in the world; several are in leading colleges at the present time, and but comparatively few of all the ex-citizens have proved a disappointment to their friends.

THE SERVANT GIRL QUESTION.

AN INTERNATIONAL PROBLEM—A GERMAN VIEW TRANSLATED FROM KURSCHNER'S
"JAHRBUCH," 1902.

The social and economic independence of the lower classes has grown greatly in the last fifty years. The old slave or feudal relation between employer and employee has disappeared, but with its disappearance new problems have arisen, and these are essentially the same in all civilized countries. The servant girl question is international. On every hand the charge of bad servants and of inability to obtain servants is met by the countercharge of unfeeling employers and of preference for other forms of industry. Only by the coöperative action of employers and employees can the problem be solved.

In Germany, in the last twenty years, the wages of female servants have doubled and trebled. Servant girls are beginning to assert equal rights with their employers and to demand fine clothes, amusements, and advantages. Many young girls infinitely prefer low wages with free evenings in some other form of industry to high wages but no freedom in domestic service. Mistresses can only in part better this by furnishing servants with cheerful, healthy rooms, instead of dark, stuffy corners as sleeping places, and by being on more friendly terms with their servants, calling out more willing service.

In England, with its big mansions and pretentious housekeeping, there is much more division of labor. Each servant has a special duty to perform punctually and thoroughly. In such cases everything runs smoothly. In the lower classes, however, conditions are as bad as in other countries. Wages are from \$100 to \$150 per year. The food is the same among such classes for maid and mistress, and yet discontent reigns on both sides.

In France, the servant question is perhaps sadder than in any other country. Few Parisian girls go into service. The servant girls, are mainly girls from the country, brought, young and innocent, thrown into a vortex of vice and dissipation, mingling with people of all ages and of both sexes. The result is in very many instances moral downfall, and in most cases with no redress. The code Napoleon forbids inquiry into paternity. The morals of French servants are in other ways the lowest. Commissions or the keeping by the servants for themselves of a little amount from each purchase they make for their employers are universal. The girls are paid from \$5 to \$8 in the middle classes and from \$12 to \$20 among the well to do.

In America, the land of freedom, servants have always been given more advantages and a certain amount of freedom.

In New York City, the dearth of female servants and the unwillingness of girls to enter service has been in part met by the employment of men, and

schools and classes have been started to train good and willing girls to effective service. Girls so trained can command good wages and among the wealthy are given separate rooms, days and afternoons "out," and the right of entertaining friends. A Household Economic Association undertakes to train servants and hire them out by the hour or day. The association is responsible for the payment of the wages, and all complaints are made to it.

In Australia, few, if any, will take service. Paid housework has to be done by outside labor, just as carpets are cleansed by carpet cleaning companies. The result is said to be satisfactory.

AMERICAN NOTES. (See Social Progress for 1904.)

According to an investigation made by Professor Lucy M. Salmon, the average weekly cash wage to domestic servants was for women, \$3.23, and for men, \$6.93 (though 40 per cent. of the men did not receive board and lodging besides and were largely on the Pacific Coast). In 245 Massachusetts homes the servants' average daily time on call was 12½ hours and on duty 10½.

The main difficulty of the Servant Question lies in the fact that for young, intelligent, healthy women there is a steadily increasing demand in occupations more inviting than domestic service. Ordinary mistresses, therefore, *under the present system*, must increasingly look forward to obtaining as household servants only the inefficient or the old. It is inevitable. On domestic service as now conducted there is a stigma. Till people are willing to marry or regard cooks and housemaids on an equality with girls in offices, stores and factories, girls will prefer such life to domestic service, even at lower pay. Domestic service, moreover, even in the best homes, usually implies constant submission to one person's will, and constant confinement, except, perhaps, for one "evening out" a week. In the store or the factory, girls almost always have all their evenings and Sundays perfectly free, and when at work are with others under fixed regulations rather than under a personal master. Almost anybody would prefer such a measure of freedom, even with low pay, to higher pay and less freedom. The way out, therefore, seems to be to put domestic service not on a personal but on a professional basis, and hire people to come in for certain hours and do certain work, in the way offices are now cleaned.

LES JARDINS OUVRIERS.

(Workingmen's Gardens.)

BY LOUIS RIVIERE, VICE-PRESIDENT OF THE SOCIÉTÉ D'ECONOMIE OF FRANCE.

The aim of the institution of this name in France, is to allow, free of charge, to the workingman with a family, a parcel of ground containing three or four *ares* for the raising of necessary vegetables for his family. The institution procures the ground by renting either a field in the neighborhood of popular suburbs or vacant building lots in the heart of a city. This organization is analogous to the *Vacant Lot Cultivations*, which have spread since 1894 to a great number of the cities of the United States, and have found their most complete form in Philadelphia. The French institution is a little older, incorporated at Sedan (Ardennes) at the initiation of Madame Felice Heroien. The success of this first enterprise quickly led many others to copy it. An inquiry conducted in October, 1903, on the occasion of the first International Congress of the *Jardins Ouvriers*, revealed the existence of 134 institutions, representing a total of 6,500 gardens, covering a surface of 270 hectares; the number of persons composing the families of the members amounted to 46,000. Within a year 28 new institutions have been created, an increase of over 20 per cent.

This rapid growth is due, in a great measure, to the active propaganda pursued by the *Ligue du Coin de Terre et du Foyer*, founded in 1896, by M. l'Abbe Lemire, député du Nord. It is right to acknowledge that this was largely made easy by the remarkable material and moral results of the first experiments.

The workman who receives a garden is bound to work it in order to make it produce vegetables. Consequently, there is no danger of the pauperization caused by charity too easily obtained.

At the same time, as the labor of the beneficiary increases to him the value of the aid, a great deal more is accomplished. It is generally conceded that the expense incurred for labor returns five times the amount. Thus a garden costing four dollars for rent and expenses, returns twenty dollars to the tenant. This is an appreciable addition to a small income, especially as the garden is generally cultivated by old men, women, children, without interfering with the work of the head of the family. Besides, the garden is an aid to health for all the members of the family. The father, quitting the workshop, finds ease and comfort without having to seek them at the tavern; consequently, there is a diminution of useless expense prejudicial to health. The children play in the open air under infinitely more healthful conditions than in the yard or street. Exercise develops their organs, and compensates them for the poor air of the common bedroom.

The most distinguished physicians of Paris declared, at the Congress of 1903, that they considered the *Jardin Ouvrier* the indispensable compliment of the dispensary for the home treatment of consumption.

* * *

But the *Jardin Ouvrier* does not confine itself to its immediate purpose. By its grouping of families it facilitates the diffusion of the varied social work, all of which have for object the material and moral uplifting of the family on the point of falling into the most extreme misery.

Houses are seen to go up spontaneously, built upon the garden lots by the beneficiaries, with materials from demolished buildings and stones gathered from everywhere. In order to make this movement regular, R. L. Volpette, the founder of the institution of Saint-Etienne, bought a field and sold it in lots to workingmen to enable them to build on their own property. Then he became a manufacturer of bricks, employing in his works those of his tenants who were momentarily out of work. Finally, he founded a rural bank *Raiffeisen*, advancing two-thirds of the cost to every builder who could raise the first third.

Savings banks have been established and societies of mutual aid to provide medical advice and medicine for the members. At Tourmet each group of gardens has its bank supported by contributions of 60 centimes (12 cents) per week. Those in charge employ these funds in collective purchases at wholesale prices, which they distribute, being reimbursed later in weekly payments. Thus these societies form a coöperative medium without a shop.

At Lille, at Beauvois, at Valenciennes, a thorough system of horticultural instruction has been organized, and in consequence the produce of the gardens has been sensibly increased.

Elsewhere, dispensaries have been established, where physicians give advice and medicine free of charge, also libraries, and catechism classes.

At Grenoble, the founder has created a "common house" on the ground divided into gardens, where professors come each week to give free lectures and conduct discussions with their audience.

These examples suffice to show the manifold extension of which the institution is capable. The original idea has been progressively enlarged until it constitutes a complete body of social institutions for improving the housing, food and hygienic conditions of the workman, and for successfully combating alcoholism, consumption and infant mortality, developing a spirit of prudence, saving and the love of the family, and good-will towards neighbors.

AGRICULTURAL COLONIES.

Colonies ouvrières agricoles.

BY LOUIS RIVIERE, VICE PRESIDENT OF THE "SOCIÉTÉ D'ECONOMIE SOCIALE"
OF FRANCE.

During the nineteenth century a number of countries have undertaken to form agricultural colonies intended to employ workingmen out of work and to diminish the number of vagrants. We indicate here two of the best known experiments in active operation at the present time.

* * *

After the continual wars of the beginning of the last century, the misery among the working classes of the Netherlands was extreme; in certain towns one third of the population received public charity.

General Yan van den Bosch proposed to furnish work for these thousands of idle hands. He founded, in 1818, the "Netherlands Society of Charities," which developed rapidly and acquired a territory of 850 hectares in the province of Drenthe. Houses were built, colonists poured in and tilled the uncultivated lands of the domain. Around the first colony, Fredriksoord, others followed in a few years.

Unfortunately, the society did not maintain its principle not to accept any but healthy men. It allowed its members to send it workmen who were aged men unfit for work. An agreement with the State complicated the situation still more by imposing upon the society the obligation to take condemned vagrants, idlers, still more incapable of serious work.

After having lived for quite a time upon the advances of the State the society was obliged to cease. In 1859 it abandoned to its creditors the groups of Veenhuizen and of Ommerschaus and ceded to them at the same time the vagrants and mendicants,—the dead weight which had crushed it.

Since then the institution, by returning to the principle of its foundation and admitting only sound workers, has recovered the prosperity of its beginning. It has three colonies, Fredriksoord, Willemsoord, and Wilhelminasoord, where a population of 1,800 inhabitants lodge in separate dwellings, taking their meals together; they cultivate 2,100 hectares which they transform into fertile ground. The children receive primary and professional instruction in establishments founded by the society. The latter thus has been able to assure dignity of life and a comparative well-being to an appreciable number of families, at the same time doing a work of civilization and enriching the nation by making valuable a formerly barren country.

* * *

The industrial crisis was also the cause of the propagation of the workingman's colonies in Germany. In 1878, throughout the Empire, *Naturalverplegungsstationen* or stations for food supplies were established, where traveling workmen in search of work could procure lodging and food for a day, in return for accomplishing some easy task; as for example, breaking stones or sawing firewood.

Pastor von Bodelschwing, desiring to perfect this organization, offered a permanent home to workingmen tired of wandering and settling nowhere. Assisted by the gifts of charitable friends he acquired, in 1882, a domain of 125 hectares in the least fertile parts of the regency of Minden. He called this colony Wilhelmsdorf, in honor of his sovereign, and finally commenced with eighty colonists, who eagerly hastened to this refuge.

Success crowned the enterprise. The ground rapidly improved, returned a sufficient revenue for the support of the workers and paid a generous profit.

Other colonies, on the same plan, were founded at Hanover, Schleswig-Holstein, Brandenburg, in Pomerania, Bavaria, and the Rhenish Provinces.

There are to-day in Germany 33 establishments of this kind. Of these 30 possess an entirely agricultural character; two take up industrial work (Berlin and Hamburg), one practices both farming and industry (Magdeburg).

It must, however, be remarked that as the number of colonies increased, the character of those assisted seems to have deteriorated. One sees pouring in that class of wandering vagrants always on the watch for new institutions capable of furnishing a temporary succor to their need; such as unskilled workmen, or those [alcoholic subjects, who form a social waste in all large industrial countries. Public statistics show that the number of colonists placed, which in the beginning amounted to 27 per cent., is now no more than 16 per cent. The number of 'bummers' '*Kolonie bummeler*,' as they are called, have increased from one-third to two-thirds, 67 per cent.

The colonies have been forced to remedy these conditions by establishing general rules. Their intention has been facilitated by the creation of a central committee, *Central vorstand deutscher Arbeiter-Kolonien* and the meeting of an annual congress. They have created special institutions for alcoholic subjects, they have developed the Savings' Bank system and encouraged saving. A special review, *Der Wanderer*, publishes each week a "black list" containing the names of individuals discharged from a colony for misconduct and whom the others must refuse to receive. Finally they have established at two places, at Friedrich-Wilhelmsdorf, near Bremerhaven and at Schäferhof, near Hamburg, family colonies, *Heimathskolonien*, where lodgers who desire may remain indefinitely and either live the common life or establish separate homes if they are a family.

Thanks to these continual improvements the colonies for workmen, without accomplishing entirely the elevating results intended by their founders, render genuine service to Germany. With their 3,700 beds they furnish shelter for more than a million of nights to idle men who would otherwise have slept under the stars or done damage to the farm-lands. Into how many misdemeanors, crimes even, has brutal want led men abandoned to themselves? Germany is at present passing through an industrial crisis compared in some respects to those of 1875 and 1880. The number of "non-employed" has sensibly increased, but we have not heard that it has assumed the disastrous character of twenty-five years ago.

VACANT LOT CULTIVATION.

BY BOLTON HALL.

In the hard times of 1894, Mayor Pingree, while riding over the vacant land around Detroit, saw the connection between idle lands and idle hands. He secured the permission of some of the owners of the land, and offered to the people on the City Charity pay-roll, the use of three-quarters of an acre each. Nothing was supplied except instruction, seed, rough plowing, and the land; yet in one year this plan reduced the charity pay roll by about sixty per cent. The cost to the management was about three dollars and sixty cents per family.

In 1895, a committee took up similar work in New York City under the care of the Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor, and its example was followed the next year by about twenty other cities and towns. Much of the land then used is now rented out to cultivators, and the increase of employment and increased speculation in land which followed improvement in financial conditions made this form of relief less available in the following years.

Typographical Union No. 6 of New York City later set up a farm for unemployed printers, and thereby greatly reduced its pension and "out of work allowances." It was given up, however, owing to the impossibility of securing the use of any land near New York City, and to a change of control of the Union. It points the way, however, to the resource of Trades-Unionists to keep themselves during strikes or scarcity of work.

Philadelphia has persisted in Vacant Lot Cultivation for eight years, and in 1904 had over eight hundred families, men, women, and many children, cultivating quarter acres or less per family, of waste land, on which they raised an average of \$50 of crops per quarter acre. Some make \$200. Besides this the Association has a coöperative garden and farms some land "on shares."

The time should not be far off when the prisons will have school gardens so that convicts may learn how to support themselves independently, unaffected by their previous history.

THE GROWTH OF AN IDEA—THE GARDEN CITY.

BY EBENEZER HOWARD, DIRECTOR OF THE GARDEN CITY ASSOCIATION.

The Garden City, which has been started near Hitchin, 34 miles to the north of London, is the outcome and embodiment of an idea, though doubtless its emergence into reality has not taken precisely the form in which it was first conceived. England is an old country; but—was it because I lived in Chicago from 1872-6?—the idea of starting in the open country a new town which should be planned and thought out before a brick was laid, assumed form and shape in my mind. At last it possessed me, and, to be a little Irish, I could find no rest till I set out upon the task. I was not a man of means; had no wealthy friends; no social position; no training as engineer, architect or man of affairs, and all my friends begged me to stick to my own calling—that of a stenographer—and not trouble about things too high for me. Cities, I was told, grew up according to some subtle laws which no one could understand; they could not, like stakes, be planted in the wilderness at the caprice of anyone. But the more I thought of the matter the more clear it became that a new city was needed to *save England*, to give her, through the object-lesson it would offer, a fresh start, a new aim,—no less a one than the gradual reconstruction of the entire social fabric, which was getting sadly out of repair and well-nigh past mending. For the new city might be the home of many new ideas; might introduce its own domestic legislation; start a reform of the land laws; control in a reasonable way the liquor traffic; regulate its own growth (by providing a belt of agricultural land around it); lay out its own area in a systematic way (not with the primary aim of making large profits, but of creating and preserving the highest degree of industrial efficiency); absolutely prevent overcrowding, and in many other ways raise a higher standard of life. The new city, too, would prepare the country's mind for that decentralization of population—that getting of the people back upon the land—which has long been the dream of our social reformers. For England is not an overcrowded country; its cities are, it is true, congested, but its rural districts are becoming more and more deserted. Some method, therefore, of reversing the tide which has long been setting toward our cities must be discovered; and a new city on a new site, administered with worthy aims, would, I conceived, be the first step in this process; for it would reveal the practicability of building many more—each being an improvement upon the last. So I published, in 1898, a book called "Garden Cities of To-morrow," in which I suggested such an enterprise as a fine field for capital; for I took care to show that every sovereign spent in building a new city on a new site would yield a vastly larger and

better result than could possibly be secured by altering or enlarging an old one. I urged, however, that to be successful those who financed the enterprise should limit their rate of profit at the outset, and proved, as I believe, that it was even sound business so to do, as an adequate return would then be assured,—because the resulting rapid migration of persons delighted to be so fairly treated, would soon build up an ample margin of security.

This idea would, however, have probably fallen pretty flat had it not been that the Garden City Association (a propagandist body which I formed in order to make the idea known) was able to take its members and many representatives of local authorities from all over the country to Bournville and Port Sunlight. There two experiments had been most successfully carried out, in which most of what I had advocated on a large scale had been already done on a small scale. Cadbury, because he was crowded out of Birmingham, built Bournville; Lever, because he could not enlarge his works at Warrington, built Port Sunlight. These are Garden Villages, well-planned and healthy, where overcrowding is prevented, and, by their wonderful success, they have demonstrated that our business enterprises are ever most successful where they dive deepest down into the problem of meeting the real needs of the people. The argument, therefore, which our Association used was: If a single manufacturer can build a Garden Village, why cannot a free combination of men and women build a Garden City?

After some intervening steps, which I must pass over, a company was formed called First Garden City Limited, with a nominal capital of £300,000, of which upward of £100,000 has now been raised, and this company has purchased a beautiful, undulating, egg-shaped estate of 3,800 acres—about ten times the area of Bournville. The land, with its timber, cottages, houses and inns, has cost about £40 an acre, and an admirable plan has been prepared by Parker Unwin for laying out the town which will occupy the centre of the estate—there being plenty of recreative spaces also within the town. The scheme provides for 30,000 persons. The company limits its earning powers to 5 per cent., and undertakes to spend all surplus profits in improving and developing the estate. A part of the estate is intended for factories, and each of these will be placed on sidings connecting them with the railways. Cottages will occupy not less than 1-12th acre of land each. The Directors include Mr. Ralph Neville, K.C., Chairman, Lord Brassey, Mr. Edward Cadbury of Bournville, Mr. Franklin Thomasson, cotton spinner of Bolton; Mr. Idris, mineral water manufacturer; Mr. Aneurin Williams, well known in the coöperative movement; Mr. George Harris, and Mr. H. D. Pearsall. These gentlemen, like members of a Local Authority—as in fact, though not in name, they are—give their services. A great impetus is likely to be given to this movement by a Cheap Cottages Exhibition which is to be held on the Estate in July of next year. I am myself about to form a company to be called Garden City Builders Limited which will engage in the work of building on a large scale and on model lines—so as to support the splendid efforts of the parent company, which has laid out several miles of additional roads, with sewers, built a water works, laid down sidings, started making provision for light and power, and is only needing more capital—which is, however, steadily coming in—to make the project a great success, and, I trust, a great harbinger of peaceful constructive methods the whole world o'er.

INDUSTRIAL BETTERMENT.

BY DR. WM. H. TOLMAN, DIRECTOR OF THE AMERICAN INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL SCIENCE.

Among the notable changes in business methods during the last twenty years, is the large aggregation of employees working for one man or for a single corporation. It is an industrial condition that followed naturally the organization of capital into syndicates and trusts. With an industrial army of thousands, it became necessary for the best administration and efficiency that they be grouped into subdivisions in charge of responsible leaders, in order that the working machine should respond to the directing control of the commander-in-chief. The day has passed when the employer is able to individualize those who work for him; not knowing them by name or even by sight, the personal touch, the point of contact has been lost.

Within the last decade, an increasing number of employers are concerning themselves with something more than the material output of their factories and workshops; they are making provisions for the most improved sanitation of the places where the employees work; the rooms are made bright and airy; comfortable seats are provided; the walls are decorated in colors that are quiet and restful to the eye; educational classes are provided for those who wish to perfect themselves in technical or useful knowledge; movements for recreation and social intercourse are provided for additional enjoyments outside of the factory, and efforts are made to make the individual home a social and attractive centre for the entire family. These and many other features are what is known as industrial betterment, that is, an attempt to promote better relations between the employer and the employee.

The American Institute of Social Service, whose object is social and industrial betterment, exhibited in the department of Social Economy at the St. Louis Exposition, a notable series of movements on the part of American employers to improve the conditions of life and labor.

Based on these exhibits, collected and interpreted by the American Institute of Social Service, the following awards were made by the International Jury in Social Economy to these American industrialists. In the group for general betterment movements, a Grand Prize to the National Cash Register Co., Dayton, Ohio, and to the H. J. Heinz Co., Pittsburg, Pa.; gold medals were given to the Ludlow Mfg. Associates, Ludlow, Mass.; Siegel Cooper Co., New York; Apollo Iron and Steel Co., Vandergrift, Pa.; General Electric Co., Schenectady, N. Y.; Cleveland Twist Drill Co., and the Sherwin-Williams Paint Co., Cleveland, Ohio; Gorham Mfg. Co., Providence, R. I.; American Waltham Watch Co., Waltham, Mass.; Weston Electric Instrument Co., Newark, N. J.; Silver medals for J. H. Williams & Co., Brooklyn, N. Y.; Ferris Bros., Newark, N. J.; Cleveland Hardware Co., Cleveland, Ohio.

In the group for improved housing, 136 gold medals were awarded, the Cleveland Cliffs Iron Co., Ishpeming, Mich.; Proximity Mfg. Co., Greensboro, N. C.; Draper Co., Hopedale, Mass.; Nelson Mfg. Co., St. Louis, Mo.; National Cash Register Co.; Dayton, Ohio; Apollo Iron and Steel Co.; Vandergrift Co., Vandergrift, Pa.; Westinghouse Air Brake Co., Wilmerding, Pa. These firms are representative, and every phase of American industrial betterment may be studied among them.

Photographs illustrating the industrial betterment of these firms and of others were exhibited at St. Louis and may now be seen at the Headquarters of the Institute, 287 Fourth Avenue, New York City.

A commercial member of the Institute, of the firm of Williams, Greene & Rome Co., manufacturers of shirts, collars and cuffs, writes us as follows:

Since the publication of our pamphlet, "The Right Idea," we have established a library and reading-room in the factory, open daily and three nights in the week, well patronized and very much appreciated.

We have purchased athletic grounds adjoining the factory, on which were established bowling lawns, lawn tennis courts, croquet and football grounds. We are now erecting a toboggan slide on these grounds.

We are at present fitting up two club rooms, one for the men and one for the girls, in which we are installing baths, etc., etc. The girls' room will be used as a rest room as well.

We have also established in the factory a sick-benefit fund and a flower fund. If one of our employees is absent from the factory, the committee immediately make inquiry and wait upon them to see whether they are in need of assistance in any way. The benefits are equal to about one-half of their weekly wage, but in all cases where the sickness is only of a trivial nature, but still enough to incapacitate them, flowers are sent and the committee keeps track of them until they are back to work again. I may say that since January last up to September there were 56 cases of relief attended to by this committee. The firm do not deduct the wages of the weekly hands who are absent while sick, but pay them in full.

We have tried to establish in this factory a pleasant relationship, not only between employer and employee, but between the heads and sub-heads of departments and all of the workers. I can safely say that the past three years there has been no one spoken too unkindly in the factory.

Our business last year was about \$60,000 larger than ever it was before. We employ 60 handsless; we work only nine hours a day instead of ten, and give the employees Saturday afternoon holiday from May 1st to November 1st."

WOMEN AND SOCIAL BETTERMENT.

It is as gratifying as it is significant to learn that, at the Sixth Biennial Convention of the National Federation of Women's Clubs held at Los Angeles in May, the greater part of the program and the really strong sessions were devoted not to culture, but to social and civic betterment. The industrial revolution which transferred many activities from the home to the factory, has created new social conditions and new problems of adjustment. It is fitting that women who have now been freed from the burdens laid on them by the age of homespun, should devote some of the new leisure thus bestowed to the solution of the new problems thus created.

When manufacture was in the home, women were held to the house with a short tether. They traveled but little. They saw less of the world than their husbands and brothers, and had less education. There was not much in their lives to stimulate growth and to provoke progress. Thus women came to be considered the conservative sex. But conditions are changing.

When spinning and weaving and scores of other industries went from the home to the factory, many young women followed, but the daughters of well-to-do and wealthy families remained at home and found themselves without an occupation. Many of them had too much moral earnestness to be satisfied with the vapid thing called society; hence the new impulse toward higher education among women and the multiplication of colleges which cannot make room for the girls who flock to them; hence, also, the rapid growth of women's clubs which aim at a larger culture.

Thus leisure and wealth are bringing to women a larger life with larger possibilities. They are rapidly becoming in America the educated sex, with all that that implies. Our high schools very commonly graduate two or three times as many girls as boys. The latter drop out of school that they may go into business. It is becoming true in many communities that there are more educated young women than there are educated young men.

By reason of a liberal education, and courses of study pursued in middle life, for which business men have no time, there has come to be a large class of women who are much better informed as to social conditions than their husbands; they have also more public spirit, or at least more time to devote to the public good. Thus it has come about that women are becoming the principal promoters of movements for social betterment.

It looks as if women's clubs might take a leading part in the great work of industrial improvement and in establishing right relations between employers and employees. As wives they sympathize with the perplexities of the former, and as women they sympathize with the hardships of the latter. With a hand upon each they may do much to reconcile both.

THE SOCIAL SECRETARY.

BY WM. H. TOLMAN, PH.D.

In talking with a representative of the New York *Tribune*, in 1899, the Director of the American Institute of Social Service told him that a new profession was under way. "What is it?" he asked. The Director replied, "A Social Secretary, that is, an official to be added to the staff of a business firm who shall be the point of contact between it and its employees so as to promote industrial betterment."

The article in the *Tribune* was copied extensively by the press of the United States, and brought to the Institute many inquiries.

Soon after the American Institute of Social Service had made the public announcement of this new career, we received a letter from a woman in New England, who said she wanted to be a social secretary. How could she do it? We gave her the necessary information, and told her that we would help her in every possible way. She quickly grasped the idea and went to the largest department store in her own city, telling the proprietor that he ought to have a social secretary and that she wanted the position. He was favorably impressed and added her to his staff. He remarked, on a recent occasion, that she was worth to the store three times all that he had ever paid her in salary. Since then, social secretaries have been employed by firms in Pittsburg, Chicago, Boston and New York. Last summer at the Rowntree factory in York, England, the director found that there were four social secretaries and four assistants.

SOCIAL MUSEUMS.

A Social Museum is an institution where is brought together the tabulated experiences of the world, showing the various attempts that have been made to make the world a better place to live in. These experiences are also interpreted, thus being brought to bear upon the needs of the individual wishing to make his own community a better place to live in. Notable among such museums is the Musée Social of Paris, founded by the Count de Chambrun, who thus made it possible to conserve the exhibits in social economy at the close of the Paris Exposition in 1889. There is a library and a bureau of information, lectures and congresses. The Musée has sent some 70 commissions to different parts of the world, studying questions of social and labor legislation. The Musée is installed at 5 Rue Las Cases, Paris, in its own building, which was given it by the Count de Chambrun. Jules Siegfried is the president, and Emile Cheysson, who was largely instrumental in making the idea successful, is vice-president.

The institution which most closely approaches those of similar organizations in Europe, like the Musée Social in Paris, is the Central Group of the Moscow Section of the Imperial Russian Technical Society, founded in 1897, under the presidency of Dr. Pogogeff, for the encouragement and centralization of the activities of learned societies, especially those which have to do with the protection of life, limbs and the health of the working classes. This society deals especially with problems concerning the preservation of workmen from accidents, fire, explosions, and other catastrophes in factories and workshops, measures undertaken against unhealthy conditions in workrooms and dangerous processes in certain trades, the hygienic construction and installation of factories and workshops, the building of improved dwellings for working classes, and in general the organization of hospitals and medical assistance, insurance of workmen against accidents to labor and sickness, the length of the labor day from the point of view of hygiene, and industrial progress, and the various forms of industrial betterment.

This society organizes lectures, visits to factories and workshops; it possesses a library and bureau of information. One of the means for carrying out its propaganda is through affiliations with similar societies in Russia and other countries. It has a series of reports published by commissions of experts. It has elaborated a plan for reconstructing workmen's cheap lodging houses, and also for the construction of cheap dwellings for a community of 10,000 people.

Other notable social museums are the Solvay Institute at Brussels, the Institute of Social Service in Stockholm, the Bureau of Social Advice in Amsterdam, and the Social Museum in Milan. Organizing committees have been appointed, looking toward the creation of a British Institute of Social Service.

In America, the American Institute of Social Service, with the object of social and industrial betterment, with its headquarters at 287 Fourth Avenue, near 23d Street, has successfully demonstrated the need and advantages of a Social Museum for the United States. The use of its headquarters is free, and a cordial invitation is extended to visitors and students to avail themselves of its resources.

SOCIAL HALLS.

A Social Halls Association has been organized in New York City to provide social clubhouses for the dwellers in the tenement district. One hall, Clinton Hall, has been already opened. It has billiard rooms, a café, dining rooms, a big hall for balls, an entire floor for weddings, a roof garden, fitted up with a comfort that suggests luxury. President of Directors, Lillian D. Wald, 265 Henry Street, New York.

A MUNICIPAL MUSEUM.

The Municipal Museum of Chicago was founded by the City Homes Association of Chicago November, 1904.

Its purpose is the promotion of intelligence concerning the administration of cities and the problems of urban life, through the assembling of data and illustrative material relating to the processes of civic development, the expert classification of the material and its presentation in a form calculated to meet the needs of both the student and the practical man of affairs.

The Museum is installed in the building of the Chicago Public Library. Sec., George E. Hooker, 180 Madison St., Chicago, Ill.

SCHOOLS OF PHILANTHROPY.

BY ALEXANDER JOHNSON, SECRETARY OF THE NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION.

Perhaps the public demand for a strictly professional school of special training and thorough preparation for social service was voiced for the first time at the National Conference of Charities and Correction in 1897.

Before that date there had been tentative efforts by certain of the more active societies to prepare their new agents. The position of agent in training had been created by the Boston Associated Charities.

The Summer School in Philanthropic Work, begun under the auspices of the Charity Organization Society of the City of New York, with the leadership of Dr. Philip W. Ayres and supported by a few liberal and enlightened members of the society, deserves and must always be given the place of honor in the list of such efforts. Its success was instantaneous. Its roll of alumni contains the names of hundreds of the leading men and women in the present charitable field.

But the Summer School has not fully met the demand, nor was it ever regarded by its promoters as more than a beginning.

A further step was taken during the winter of 1893-4 in New York, by the Winter School, under the direction of Anna Garlin Spencer. This extended over six months. Its program included 41 lectures by many leading workers and teachers; it had 156 students, of whom 52 completed the entire course and passed a satisfactory examination.

At the same time in Chicago, under the leadership of Professor Graham Taylor, and as a part of the work of the College of the University of Chicago, a similar work was undertaken with equal success.

But still the essential features of a professional school were lacking. The instructors were almost wholly volunteers, barely their expenses being defrayed. Still more important, the students were all actively at work in various callings, they gave only the brief moments they could spare from pressing duties, tired with the labors of the day.

The Charity Organization Society of New York, encouraged by the success of the Summer School, feeling the need of trained workers the most keenly, resolved to found and conduct a school which should do for its students the work that a school of medicine does for those who matriculate with it, and should require of them their whole time and energy for at least one full academic year.

A few liberal people furnished the sinews of war and the School of Philanthropy began its work October 4, 1904, with 24 students enrolled for the fall term.* A corps of lecturers such as have been seldom, if ever, gathered together, was secured. Mr. Devine is Director and has for his associates Mr. Philip W. Ayres, Mrs. Anna Garlin Spencer and Mr. Alexander Johnson.

A demand for Extension Courses has already sprung up. The school has come to stay. This has been assured by an endowment of \$250,000 given by Mr. John S. Kennedy, President of The United Charities, whose liberality has already provided a fitting home in that center of charitable activity, The United Charities Building.

Simultaneous with the New York School of Philanthropy and with many common features, a School for Social Workers has begun in Boston. This is directly connected with Harvard University and Simmons College. It uses the offices of the Associated Charities of Boston for its field work and is closely identified with that splendid society. Mr. Jeffrey R. Brackett is Director and Miss Zilpha D. Smith, Associate. It began the fall term with a class of about thirty.

The work under Professor Taylor in Chicago continues upon the same lines as last season, with a good programme of evening lectures, the students, as before, being chiefly people engaged in active social service either as professional or volunteer workers.

The claims of Social Service are being met as never before. The best reward of the faithful worker, that he shall be given more work to do, is sure.

* The enrollment for the winter term is 36.

CHARITY ORGANIZATION SOCIETIES.

BY EDWARD S. DEVINE, GENERAL SECRETARY OF THE N. Y. CHARITY ORGANIZATION SOCIETY.

The first Charity Organization Society, proper, was started in London in 1869. Since then more than three hundred other associations have been formed with the same general objects, though under varying names. Two

hundred of these are in the United States and Canada. They are not organically connected, but perhaps the best way briefly to study them is to give a concrete statement of the objects of one of them, the Charity Organization of the City of New York. It was started in 1882, and occupies a peculiar and central position among the charitable agencies of the city. It is a society:

1. For organizing and coördinating charitable work.
2. For receiving applications for aid, carefully sifting and testing them, and obtaining from the proper sources prompt and adequate relief of such as are in need.
3. For encouraging the establishment of new agencies where they are required; for giving expert confidential advice to the benevolent in their benefactions, and for giving accurate information in regard to charitable institutions, almoners, or agents that appeal for contributions.
4. For helping the poor through wise counsel based upon experience, through personal service of volunteer visitors, and through all such means as will make them at the earliest possible moment self-supporting and self-respecting members of the community.

In addition to the Central Offices and Application Bureau in the United Charities Building, and the ten district offices in various parts of the city, the Society conducts ten main departments, as follows:

1. Investigating Department, United Charities Building. Investigations are made for private persons, hospitals, dispensaries and other institutions. For this purpose and to ascertain whether new families that make application are in need of aid, the Society maintains a special corps of investigating agents in connection with the Registration Bureau.

2. Registration Bureau, United Charities Building. A confidential record of all investigations made by the Society, and of the action taken on behalf of families under its care. Information is given through the Central Office or by mail to those who have a legitimate charitable interest in the families concerned.

3. Woodyard, 516 West 28th Street. To provide work for residents with families for a cash remuneration, and to test their willingness to work. Homeless men may earn meals and lodgings.

4. Laundry, 516 West 28th Street. To provide temporary employment for women with families. Expert laundresses are supplied through the employment registry of the laundry.

5. The Penny Provident Fund, United Charities Building. For the encouragement of small savings through the stamp system.

6. Publications, *Charities*, a weekly periodical of local and genreal philanthropy and of social activities; a means of communication among workers and of information to the public. Annual subscription, \$2. *The Charities Directory*, cloth, \$1, published annually. It gives reliable information concerning the various charitable and beneficent institutions of New York City, carefully classified and fully indexed. *Handbook on the Prevention of Tuberculosis*, 388 pp.; cloth, \$1; paper, 50 cents. *The Directory of Institutions and Societies Dealing with Tuberculosis in the United States and Canada*, 270 pp.; Cloth, \$1.

7. Library, United Charities Building. A public reference library of applied sociology. All who are interested in charitable subjects are made welcome.

8. Tenement House Committee, United Charities Building. To improve the condition of tenement-houses by securing proper legislation, by securing the enforcement of the existing laws, and by encouraging the building of model tenements.

9. The Committee on the Prevention of Tuberculosis. By research into the social aspects of tuberculosis, by the publication of information concerning the curability and the communicable character of the diseases through lectures,

leaflets, and otherwise; by the promotion of movements for the erection of sanatoria; by obtaining special relief for those whose chances of recovery will thus be increased and in other ways to aid in the movement for the prevention of the disease.

10. The School of Philanthropy. To fit men and women for social service either as professional or as volunteer workers. Full information contained in the Handbook of the School, which will be sent on application.

A complete list of the two hundred charity organization societies in the United States and Canada is published each year in the annual report of the New York Charity Organization Society.

STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES.

BY ROBERT W. HEBBARD, SECRETARY OF THE NEW YORK BOARD.

State Boards of Charities, under one name or another, but with the same general purposes, exist in a number of the States. They are branches of their respective State governments usually created by legislative enactment, although in some States provided for in State constitutions, because it has been found desirable, in the interest of good administration to exercise independent supervision over charitable and kindred institutions. As a rule, these boards are composed of philanthropic citizens, appointed by the governor and in some cases confirmed by the Legislature, who are independent of partisan influences and render practically unpaid service to the State.

Generally speaking, the chief functions of these boards are to visit and inspect charitable and reformatory institutions in order to secure the correction of evils and abuses in their administration and to encourage the adoption of progressive methods in their management. Such boards have, usually, but limited powers of administration or control, in so far as the actual management of the institutions within their jurisdiction is concerned. Their powers and duties are, however, continually being added to as the growth and complexity of charitable work in their respective States makes this appear to be necessary. For this reason the duties of the several boards differ materially in some of the details of work, while in the main they are the same.

The influence they exert while almost entirely a moral one, is shown by experience to be both efficient and useful. This will readily be apparent to those who study the conditions at the almshouses and other public institutions of charity both previous to and since the establishment of State Boards of Charities. At the same time, it is also true that other social forces have coöperated to secure the great improvements that have been made during recent years in the administration of this general class of institutions.

The first State Board of Charities was established in Massachusetts in 1865, and is still in existence. Other like boards are to be found in New York, 1867; Ohio, 1867; Pennsylvania, 1869; Illinois, 1869; North Carolina, 1869; Michigan, 1871; Connecticut, 1873; Nebraska, 1877; Indiana, 1889; South Dakota, 1890; Colorado, 1891; New Hampshire, 1895; Tennessee, 1895; Missouri, 1897; District of Columbia, 1900; and California, 1903, Wyoming and Montana.

State Boards of Control are found in some of the States, but these boards are primarily administrative in their character, and take the place of the individual boards of trustees of the State institutions, rather than that of the State boards of charities.

These latter boards are to be found in Kansas, 1868; Rhode Island, 1869; Arizona, 1894; Iowa, 1898; Minnesota, 1901; Washington, 1901. Fuller information with relation to the composition and work of these two classes of State boards may be found in the published proceedings of the National Conference of Charities and Corrections.

It is the custom of the State Boards of Charities and of the State Boards of Control to issue annual or biennial reports according to the legislative custom in their respective States, and to publish from time to time other useful documents with relation to their work. These reports and documents are usually to be found in the public and other principal libraries and copies may be obtained upon application sent to the offices of the boards at their respective State capitals, where complaints calling for investigation and other communications should also be sent.

TUBERCULOSIS.

BY LILIAN BRANDT, STATISTICIAN OF THE COMMITTEE OF THE CHARITY ORGANIZATION SOCIETY OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK, ON THE PREVENTION OF TUBERCULOSIS.

Tuberculosis is the most important single cause of death in the United States, in spite of the reduction that has been going on in the last twenty years. It causes one-tenth of all the deaths that occur in the United States, and in some cities the proportion reaches 15 per cent. The pneumonia mortality has been increasing rapidly in recent years, and in some cities has even surpassed that from tuberculosis, but pneumonia is really a group of diseases, not a single one.

The importance of tuberculosis is startlingly indicated by the fact that it causes one-third of all the deaths that occur between the ages of 15 and 45, the ages of greatest economic importance. It has been estimated that the mere economic loss entailed by this preventable disease annually is \$23,000,000 in New York City and \$330,000,000 in the United States.

Although the cause of tuberculosis has been accurately known since 1882 the movements for controlling its spread and diminishing its ravages have only recently begun to gather impetus. There are now in the United States sanatoriums and hospitals providing accommodations for some 8,000 patients; there are 32 special dispensaries for the treatment of ambulant cases; there is a National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis, and there are 38 local organizations formed with the express object of reducing the amount of the disease in one way or another.

A comprehensive programme for controlling and eventually eradicating tuberculosis includes not only institutions for the treatment of tuberculous persons, but also a system of supervision by municipal and State boards of health, the proper care of consumptives in prisons, hospitals for the insane, and other public institutions, the education of the people in the elementary facts about the nature of disease, and general improvement in living and working conditions.

The reduction that has already taken place in the death rate from consumption—22 per cent. in the registration area of the United States between 1890 and 1900, 40 per cent. in New York City in the last twenty years,—is encouraging evidence that this is an evil which is easily amenable to intelligent activity.

SICKNESS AND POVERTY.

It will be seen from p 105 that the chief single cause of poverty, as here studied, is sickness or death in the families of the poor. Lack of work stands second, although, if the averages as to lack of work, insufficient work, and poorly paid work be added together, as well they might be, they form the supreme cause of poverty. Drink stands third, though only one-half as great a cause as unemployment.

How far poverty is the result of other people's misconduct or hereditary misconduct is not there shown. But as for the persons immediately concerned, misfortune is shown to be nearly four times as much the cause of poverty as their misconduct.

ANY MAN WHO IS HONEST CAN GET WORK. CAN HE?

1. There are, undoubtedly, those in every community who will not work, even when they can, and it is these who most often come before the public. Self-respecting men and women avoid begging and knocking at doors of charity till the last possible moment. Many of them prefer and often actually do choose starvation rather than beggary. But those who have lost self-respect, who will not work even when they can—these do haunt the doors of the rich and of the charitable. Not unnaturally the public, judging from its experiences, wrongly concludes that the trouble with all or most of the unemployed is that they will not work.

2. These premature judgments are caught up and repeated by the press. The press, especially the press supporting whatever administration happens to be in power (Republican or Democratic) and often too, the official labor reports, do not like to admit any lack of employment. It is for their interest to talk good times. "Prosperity-talk" creates prosperity. Hence they continually assert that there is work for all. A New York paper not long ago declared that the Department of Street Cleaning was unable to secure street-sweepers. Application at the Department at that very time elicited the fact that the Department was overrun with applications for work.

3. The wealth of this country is so limitless, its opportunities so vast, the prosperity of certain classes so good, the wages of many artisans are so high, ordinary labor, when paid is so well paid, compared with European labor, that it seems incredible that at that very time others should be unable to get work at any price. Yet such is the case. Trade union wages are high, not because there is no competition from the unemployed, but because of strict trade organization.

4. People get into the way of thinking that those out of work are so largely through their own fault because of the fact that such usually are our "weaker brethren." People forget that this *must* be so. When a man employing 105 men must discharge five, he naturally discharges the five, who for one reason or another, are the least efficient. Yet he may have discharged them, not for any especial inefficiency, but because his business, compelling him to discharge five, he selected them. Consolidation of business is said, within the last few years, to have discharged some 35,000 traveling agents. Railroads sometimes lay off a thousand men at a time. The question is, can the inefficient get work? Born as many of them are born, bred, as many of them are bred, housed as they are housed, fed, as many of them are fed, it is physically impossible but that they should be inefficient. Are they, therefore, to starve?

5. It is said that they could at least be thrifty, cleanly, temperate; and that often they are not. Large numbers of the unemployed are thrifty, cleanly, temperate; but be it remembered that few apply for relief, or come to the public notice until they have been unemployed for a considerable time, or employed only on very occasional jobs, so that the process of discouragement and demoralization has gone on a long time before they attract attention.

6. Lastly, many of the unemployed learn evil in our jails. In large sections of the country the police run the vagrant unemployed to the nearest court, because they get so much per head for each arrest, besides a fee from the sheriff who gets so much per head for keeping them. It must be remembered that few workmen are employed the whole year and that very few escape long periods of unemployment at some time in their life, owing to the continuous change in methods of production. Often in these periods of unemployment, habits of shiftlessness and intemperance are developed which sometimes ruin their life. Then if they are sent to penitentiaries to come out convict-marked, the difficulty of getting work is immeasurably increased.

Such are some of the points that mislead the general public. Yet the testimony of specialists is almost unanimous that even in times of prosperity, large numbers can not get work. Said the Massachusetts State Commission on the Unemployed in 1895:

"This problem must be looked upon as a more or less permanent one and one that must be attacked, if attacked at all, by slow and patient methods."

Still more to the point is the testimony of almost every police court in our larger cities, that they are continually compelled to commit for vagrancy in order to give food and shelter to men whose only crime is that they can not find work. In New York city an investigation was made for the period 1896 to 1900, the latter years being years of comparative prosperity. Investigation was made of the commitments for vagrancy in January and July of each year to the Blackwells Island workhouse, Kings County jail, and the Kings County penitentiary, and there were found 4,676 commitments for vagrancy in the ten months, 467 per month. And these were of men presumably sober, able-bodied men, for no magistrate will commit for vagrancy if other charges can be sustained. It is almost more important to note that 57 per cent. of these were native born, and of the native born 17 per cent. under 19 years of age, 94 per cent. were of English-speaking races or Germans. Occasionally a headline appears in the press: "In the Penitentiary Though No Criminal," but this occurs in every police court probably every week, if not every day. The warden of Kings County penitentiary said, in 1899, in the height of the "prosperity talk":

"Men are constantly being committed here in large numbers who have been charged with no crime. Over 50 per cent. of the commitments to this institution are for vagrancy—the crime (?) of being out of work and homeless. I am convinced from seeing the efficient work of some of these men while here, that they never would be here could they have secured employment outside. *By our treatment of the unemployed we are making criminals of men who have heretofore been honest, self-sustaining members of the community, and who would be so again could they obtain work.*"

The New York Labor Bulletins show by their quarterly reports that unemployment among the trade unions in that State (and therefore among the most skilled workmen) range, from 1987 to 1900, from 10 to 30 per cent. of their entire number. Among the unskilled, unemployment is much more common.

STATISTICS OF CRIME IN THE UNITED STATES.

DR. S. J. BORROWS, U. S. COMMISSIONER.

While in agriculture, commerce, manufactures, education and finance, there are vast battalions of figures covering the products and conditions of every State and of the nation as a whole, it is a remarkable and somewhat humiliating fact that there are no statistics to throw even a candle light upon the volume and movement of crime in the United States. Not to speak of the multitude of petty offenses and misdemeanors, we cannot even tell the number of high crimes committed. The only record of annual murders in the United States that we know of is a list of reported murders made up by pencil and scissors in a Chicago newspaper office. Misleading articles and papers have been based on this sort of guess work.

It is not surprising that students of sociology in the United States should have a desire to know what are the real facts as to the movement of crime, for a knowledge of facts and conditions is necessary to the application of preventive measures. The lack of information is an embarrassment in many directions. The only national light on this subject has hitherto been the decennial reports of the United States Census, based on the prison population taken on a certain

day once in ten years. This method is manifestly so imperfect and misleading that the Census Board has decided not to publish the statistics gathered in 1900, so that the publication of the last census will contain nothing whatever as to crime.

The first duty of sociologists in this matter is to bring such a strong pressure to bear upon the government that the judicial statistics of the whole United States shall be taken every year just as economic and industrial facts are gathered together in the statistical abstracts. Hardly a barrel of apples or a bushel of wheat sold in the United States goes uncounted from year to year; we could easier dispense with some of these commercial facts than to fail to count in the United States the number of persons who are arrested and arraigned for the violation of law and to know the disposition that is made of them. Even when statistics on this subject are carefully compiled, we shall not know the number of offenders who are *not* caught and arraigned.

With a view to securing the coöperation of the Census Bureau and such Congressional action as may be necessary, the National Prison Association of the United States has appointed a committee on statistics consisting of Samuel J. Barrows, Chairman, of New York; F. H. Wines, D.D., of Springfield, Ill.; Charles R. Henderson, D.D., Chicago University; Mr. Amos Butler, Secretary of the Board of State Charities of Indiana, and Mr. John Koren, Special Expert of the United States Census. The committee will be glad of suggestions and support.

Meanwhile, writers on crime should not yield to the temptation to guess on this subject. It is hardly necessary to say that arguments based upon insufficient data are inconclusive.

As to the important question whether crime is increasing in the United States, Mr. Eugene Smith, President of the Prison Association of New York, in an address before the National Prison Association, at the meeting held in October, 1904, after showing the utter absence of statistical data, reached from other and less questionable indications, the conclusion that the country is growing better and not worse.

WHAT HAS THE NEGRO BEEN DOING ?

BY BOOKER T. WASHINGTON.

During the past twenty years, the Southern Negro has made substantial progress in many directions, has responded unmistakably to the demands of American civilization. Some measure of this progress is to be found in the answers to these questions: (1) Has the Negro, succumbing to a competition too severe, exhibited tendencies to die out, as has, for example, the Maori population of New Zealand? (2) Has the Negro—with reasonable rapidity—become more intelligent? (3) To what extent has the Negro bought homes? (4) In his occupations is the Negro advancing to higher levels?

The facts show pretty plainly that, severe to him as is competition with many races which centuries have made more efficient, the Negro holds his own with dogged persistence. In 1880 there were 6,580,793 Negroes in this country; twenty years later we find this number increased to 8,833,994, an increase of 2,253,201 souls, or 34.2 per cent. Certainly a new-born race that can merely maintain its numbers in the face of the severest competition the modern world can boast, deserves praise; but what shall be said of my race? It has not merely maintained its numbers, but has actually grown 34.2 per cent. in twenty years. The red Indian of America and the Maori of New Zealand are not precedents for the Negro of the United States. Neither death nor deportation will benevolently assimilate the American Negro into non-existence; the Negro is here and here to stay. His well-being and continued progress are essential to the welfare of the republic.

This solidarity of interest has been splendidly recognized by the white people

of the South. I believe that the Southern white people realize more and more clearly the fundamental idea of the American common school—that all the property of the State should educate impartially all the children of all the people. It is not merely the man who enters the tax office who really pays the taxes; the laborers, each of whom pays one mill more to the pound for a commodity because of a license tax, really pay the license tax, however indirect the payment. The moral idea that underlies the American common school and the actual incident of taxation—these two things are winning increasing recognition in every one of the Southern States. Moreover, the value of land is largely determined by the relative intelligence and consequent efficiency of the laboring population, and the Negro constitutes a very large percentage of the South's labor. Since 1880 \$105,807,930 have been spent for the Negro schools in the former slave States. In the school year, 1879-80, \$2,120,485 were spent for colored schools, and in 1900-1, \$6,035,550, an increase of \$3,915,065, or almost 85 per cent. In 1879-80 the expenditure per capita of school population for the colored was \$1.01, but in 1900-1, \$2.21. It is true that in the latter year the white child received \$4.92 or considerably more than twice the amount received by the colored child. However, the whole South is heartily interested in the cause of Negro education.

Negro illiteracy is a stain which the schools are rapidly washing away. Of the population 10 years of age and over, 70 per cent. of the colored were illiterate in 1880, 57.1 per cent. of the Negro were illiterate in 1890, but only 44.5 per cent. of the Negro in 1900. Despite an increase between 1890 and 1900 of 1,087,000 in the Negro population 10 years of age and over, there was a decrease of nearly 190,000 in the number of Negro illiterates. It is true that among Southern Negroes illiteracy is more than four times as common as among Southern whites, but the South is determined to lessen this immense handicap upon the Negro just as rapidly as possible. To an appreciable extent progress in literacy indicates progress in intelligence, in character, in general efficiency.

The schools have greatly aided the Negro in the buying and the proper maintenance of homes. The white or black man, by the sweat of whose brow a home has been bought, is, by virtue of that act, an infinitely better citizen. In 1860 the Negro was without a home of his own, without capital, without thrift, with nothing like proper appreciation of the value of a home. And yet in 1890, of the homes occupied by Negro heads of families, 18.7 per cent. were owned—an immense advance in civilization, and all in thirty years. Moreover, of the homes thus owned 88.8 per cent. were owned free of all encumbrance. The significance of this fact is rendered more clear when you consider that only 71.2 per cent. of the homes occupied by white heads of families in that year were owned. In the decade 1890 to 1900, the Negro heads of families increased their ownership of homes to 21.8 per cent., and of this increased number, 74.2 per cent. were owned as against 68 per cent. for white heads of families. I am unaware that history records such an example of substantial progress in civilization in a time so short. Here is the unique fact that from a penniless population, just out of slavery that placed a premium upon thriftlessness, 372,414 owners of homes have emerged and of these, 255,156 are known to own their homes absolutely free of encumbrance. In these heads of Negro families lie the pledge of my race to American civilization.

In the occupations in which Negroes are engaged, are they advancing to higher levels? Nearly four million Negroes at least 10 years of age were reported by the last census to be engaged in gainful occupations. 33.7 per cent. of the Negroes occupied were agricultural laborers and 19 per cent. were farmers, planters, and overseers, a total of 52.7 per cent. being thus engaged in agriculture. Moreover, of the half a million black "laborers (not specified)" it is probable that many were agricultural laborers. An investigation of the black farmers and laborers in the cotton belt of the South is an investigation of the great mass of the Negro people in America.

The census for 1900 contains a considerable body of evidence that I might use for testing the progress of the Southern Negro in agriculture. Thus, as we have seen, about 34 per cent. of the Negro wage-earners in the United States were merely agricultural laborers, and 19 per cent. were farmers, planters and overseers. These farmers, planters and overseers, have simply lifted themselves by their boot straps! They have risen from a low to a higher level in their occupation and in American civilization. I might show how the Negro agricultural laborer of exceptional ability has become share tenant, then cash tenant, then part owner, and finally full owner with almost lightning rapidity and against fearful odds. Moreover, I might cite in proof of the progress of the Negro in agriculture the value of his farm products not fed to live stock. Thus, in the South Atlantic States, 35.5 per cent. of the number of farms operated by Negro farmers in 1900 had products in 1899, not fed to live stock, worth \$100 and under \$250, and 30.4 per cent. had products worth \$250 and under \$500. And in the South Central States 31.6 per cent. of the number of farms operated by Negro farmers had products in 1899 not fed to live stock worth \$100 and under \$250, and 36.7 per cent. had products worth \$250 and under \$500. This is an enormous advance for the Negro since 1860.

But I propose to test the progress of the Negro in agriculture by the severest test—not a comparison with European peasantry, but with native whites of native parents in the Southern States. Certainly no fair-minded man could wish a test more severe; certainly we should be surprised if these native whites of purest stock did not immensely outstrip the Negroes. Let us, however, inquire how these two classes compare with respect to the relative number of owners added in forty years.

Practically all the Negro owners of farms have become owners since 1860; in that year the Negro was landless. In the South Central States since 1860 Negro farmers have come to operate as owners and managers 95,624 farms and as tenants 348,805. The farms operated by owners or managers are thus 21.5 per cent. of the total. The per cent. of gain in ownership is about half that made by the white farmers since 1860. These facts spell progress unmistakably. In forty years 287,933 Negroes have acquired control of farm land in the South Atlantic States, of whom 202,578, or 70.4 per cent., are tenants and 85,355, or 29.6 per cent., are owners or managers. In these eventful forty years the relative number of owners among the Negro farmers of the South Atlantic States has grown from absolutely nothing, three-fourths as rapidly as the relative number of owners among the whites, who in 1860 owned every acre of the land. In both the South Central States and South Atlantic States the Negroes have thus compassed a magnificent achievement.

The total value of Negro farm property is conservatively estimated at 230 millions of dollars.

In the short space at my disposal I have simply attempted to indicate some of the ways in which the Negro of the South has made substantial progress, has responded to the demands of American civilization.

STATISTICS OF THE NEGRO.

BY THE RT. REV. BENJAMIN W. ARNETT, BISHOP OF THE AFRICAN METHODIST EPISCOPAL CHURCH.

POPULATION.

Imported from 1500 to 1800.....	10,137,000
Negro Population of U. S., 1800.....	1,001,463
Imported from 1800 to 1860.....	3,999,000
Negro Population, 1860.....	4,435,709
Negro Population, 1900.....	8,848,749

PROPERTY, 1900.

Land and improvements, \$324,242,997; buildings, \$71,902,265; implements, \$18,859,757; live stock, \$84,936,215; total, \$499,941,234.

Negro owners of premises: Virginia, 26,566; Mississippi, 21,973; Texas, 20,139; South Carolina, 18,970; North Carolina, 17,520; Alabama, 14,110; Arkansas, 11,941; Georgia, 11,375; Tennessee, 9,426; Louisiana, 9,378; Florida, 6,552; Kentucky, 5,402; Maryland, 2,262; West Virginia, 534; Delaware, 332; District of Columbia, 5. Homes owned by Negroes, 1,832,723; farms, 757,427; other homes, 1,075,296; total, 3,665,446.

In Georgia, negroes owned, in 1901, 1,041,135 acres valued at \$4,656,042 and city lots and buildings valued at \$9,007,977. Personalty, \$6,621,834. (Report of Comptroller General.) In Virginia, in 1901, they owned 1,066,303 acres, valued at \$4,342,074, with city lots and buildings valued at \$12,856,417 and personalty of \$3,966,194. (Auditor's report.)

EDUCATION.

On the 20th of May, 1865, Major-General O. O. Howard was appointed Commissioner of the Freedman's Bureau. He gave great attention to the subject of education, and after planting schools for the freedmen throughout a great portion of the South, in 1870—five years after the work was begun—he made a report: Schools established, 4,239; teachers employed, 9,307; pupils, 247,333. The emancipated people sustained 1,324 schools themselves, and owned 592 school buildings. The Freedman's Bureau furnished 654 buildings for school purposes. There were 74 High and Normal schools, with 8,147 students, and 61 industrial schools with 1,750 students in attendance. In doing this great work, for buildings, repairs, teachers, etc., \$1,002,896.07 was expended. Of this sum the freedmen raised \$200,000.00.

The following table shows the progress since 1870:

STATE	Estimated number of Persons 5 to 18 Years of Age		Pupils enrolled in public Schools		Per cent. of persons 5 to 18 years Enrolled		Per cent. of average Attendance to Enrollment	
	White	Colored	White	Colored	White	Colored	White	Colored
Alabama.....	345,250	295,250	239,055	126,116	69.24	42.71	62.75	71.36
Arkansas.....	329,800	127,120	250,586	90,109	75.98	70.88	63.33	62.47
Delaware.....	a40,094	a8,888	a30,754	a6,141	76.70	69.09	69.91	61.88
District of Columbia.....	42,486	20,428	32,518	15,914	76.54	77.90	79.31	76.70
Florida.....	98,510	75,160	69,541	42,843	70.59	57.00	66.55	69.75
Georgia.....	b389,470	b363,050	298,181	204,706	76.56	56.39	63.99	60.84
Kentucky.....	596,410	87,654	436,014	62,975	73.11	71.84	63.12	64.02
Louisiana.....	241,600	227,500	125,272	73,624	51.85	32.36	72.18	67.66
Maryland.....	b266,110	b70,120	b175,747	b48,257	66.04	68.82	64.18	47.06
Mississippi.....	b215,240	b322,070	b179,142	b208,346	83.23	64.69	60.74	57.21
Missouri.....	896,850	45,971	671,697	31,360	74.90	68.22	67.25	67.22
North Carolina.....	424,800	225,900	314,871	149,798	74.12	66.31	58.94	55.68
South Carolina.....	186,480	292,000	127,657	144,786	68.46	49.58	77.30	75.77
Tennessee.....	b945,960	b157,885	bc392,263	106,747	79.09	67.61	67.89	67.24
Texas.....	840,050	227,660	568,267	144,362	67.65	63.41	76.26	63.05
Virginia.....	367,530	227,940	b258,222	b123,339	70.26	54.11	60.60	56.30
West Virginia.....	290,670	11,487	228,129	7,886	78.48	68.65	64.43	65.94
Total, 1901-2.....	6,067,310	2,786,083	4,397,916	1,587,309	72.49	56.97	66.38	63.02
Total, 1889-90.....	d5,132,948	2,510,847	3,402,420	1,296,959	67.15	32.85	63.64	62.74

a In 1899-1900. b In 1900-1901. c Some missing data supplied.

For 1901-2 the common school expenditure in the 16 former slave States, with the District of Columbia, for both races was \$37,567,552. About 20 per cent. of this amount was expended upon the public schools for the negroes. The aggregate common school expenditure in the South since 1870 has been \$687,691,329. It is estimated that at least \$125,000,000 of this sum has been expended to support common schools for negro children. While Gen'l Howard, Gen'l John Eaton, A. D. Mayo were the leaders in establishing the common school system of the South, they found worthy assistants in the Rev. R. H. Cain of South Carolina, Rev. C. H. Pierce and Rev. J. H. Gibbs of Florida, Bishop Hood and G. W. Brodia in North Carolina, Dr. H. M. Turner, Rev. W. J. Gaines in Georgia. It was the joint work of the leaders of the two races. The progress of the colored schools has only been excelled by the progress of the colored teachers. When organized there were not more than 500 teachers, while now we have them manning all departments of educational work.

RELIGIOUS STATISTICS.

NAME OF DENOMINATION	Min-isters	Local Prea'h-ers	Members	Ch'ch's	Value of Property	No. Sunday Sch'ls	Sunday School Scholars	Adherents
African Methodist Episcopal	6,200	8,792	762,580	5,908	\$10,360,131	4,579	375,114	2,669,030
African Methodist Episcopal Zion . .	3,735	5,983	575,271	4,106	5,102,567	2,979	225,407	2,013,000
Colored Methodist Episcopal	2,751	11,575	209,972	1,649	2,525,600	1,656	201,000
Union M. E.	150	75	16,500	250	250,525	130	11,250
African Methodist Protestant	106	25	3,565	88	50,000	75	7,500
Colored Congrega-tional Methodist.	5	10	315	5	5,000	3	150
Zion Union Apos-tolic Methodist..	30	15	2,946	32	20,000	10	200
Colored Members M. E. Church . . .	1,867	4,060	292,109	3,287	3,953,475	3,426	179,873
Total Methodist.	14,844	30,725	1,863,258	15,325	\$22,267,298	12,858	1,000,494	4,682,030
Colored Baptist. . .	16,080	2,038,427	16,440	12,196,130	544,505

Besides these are the colored members of the following churches: Roman Catholic, Christian, Congregational, Disciples of Christ, Methodist Protestant, Lutheran, Independent Methodist, Presbyterian North, Presbyterian South, Reform Presbyterian, Protestant Episcopal, Reform Episcopal.

Total: Denominations, 29; organizations, 24,572; church edifices, 21,146; seating capacity, 6,810,965; valuation, \$28,863,168; members, 3,589,780; members and adherents, 6,325,880.

The following table shows the growth of the African Methodist Episcopal Church:

YEAR	Number of Churches	Valuation of Property	No. Con-ference Annual	Number of Bishops	Number of Ministers
1787	1	\$ 2,500	2
1816	7	15,000	2	1	7
1856	210	425,000	7	6	165
1876	1,833	3,164,911	25	6	1,418
1896	4,850	8,650,000	52	9	4,365
1903	5,831	9,404,675	69	13	5,838

To-day it has 2,527 parsonages and a total value of church property of \$10,042,675. From 1900-1904 it raised \$40,000 for education and for its clergy \$4,187,432.

THE YEAR'S PROGRESS IN INTERNATIONAL ARBITRATION.

DR. BENJAMIN P. TRUEBLOOD, SECRETARY OF THE AMERICAN PEACE SOCIETY.

Public sentiment in the civilized countries in favor of international arbitration as a substitute for force in the settlement of controversies has manifested itself to a most extraordinary degree during the past year. The Conference for the Promotion of International Arbitration, held at Lake Mohonk the first week in June, 1904, was the largest and most influential ever held at that place. A National Congress for the same ends was held in France during the summer and attended by six hundred delegates, coming from all parts of the French Republic. A similar National Conference was held at Manchester, England, and exercised large influence on British public opinion.

The National Arbitration Conference held at Washington in January, 1904, brought together the most remarkable body of professional, business and public men ever held in this country to promote the principle of arbitration. Immediately following this, an Arbitration Group of more than forty members was organized in Congress on the initiative of Hon. Richard Bartholdt, Member of Congress from Missouri. On the invitation of this Group and the official invitation of Congress and the President, the Inter-parliamentary Union for the Promotion of Arbitration held its twelfth conference at St. Louis the second week in September. The delegates, about two hundred in number, came as the guests of the Government, and were entertained at the expense of the Government, Congress having appropriated fifty thousand dollars for this purpose. The meeting at St. Louis was one of extraordinary interest and significance. Their appeal to the President of the United States to take the initiative in calling a new Inter-governmental Conference to take up the work left unfinished at The Hague Conference in 1899 and to consider the establishment of an advisory congress of the nations to meet at stated periods, and other important subjects, resulted in the recent invitation of the United States Government to the other nations to send representatives to a second conference at The Hague. The meeting of this new conference seems now assured.

The Thirteenth International Peace Congress, held at Boston the first week in October, was the most remarkable public demonstration in favor of international arbitration and peace ever held. It enrolled more than a thousand members and brought together an unusual number of prominent men and women from all parts of this and other lands. The delegates came from seventeen different countries, and were welcomed to the United States by Secretary of State Hay, whose presence and address on behalf of the government left no longer any room to doubt that the cause of international arbitration and permanent friendship among the nations has at last won its way to the highest seats of national authority.

The year has been most fruitful in the negotiation of treaties of obligatory arbitration stipulating reference of disputes to The Hague Court. No less than twenty-two of these have been signed since the first of January, 1904, not to mention the Anglo-French and Franco-Italian treaties signed just previously.

The year has not seen the movement completed, but has made it certain that its final and complete success is not far away.

RECIPROCITY.

JOHN BALL OSBORNE, JOINT SECRETARY OF THE RECIPROCITY COMMISSION,
WASHINGTON, D. C.

The practical results of the reciprocity movement inaugurated by the Government of the United States in 1897 consist of one treaty, that with the

Republic of Cuba, and four commercial agreements, viz.: with France, Germany, Italy, and Portugal, all of which have proved beneficial to the export trade of the United States and are in actual operation.

The Cuban Reciprocity Treaty was signed at Havana December 11, 1902, and, after ratification by the Senate, was put into effect December 27, 1903, by Congressional legislation. By its terms, Cuba, in return for the concession by the United States of a reduction in duty of 20% in favor of all Cuban products, admits all American goods (excepting tobacco) at tariff reductions ranging from 20% to 40% of the regular duties, and guarantees that these reductions shall remain "preferential in respect to all like imports from other countries," during the treaty-term, namely, five years, dating from time of ratification. In every instance, no matter how high or low the Cuban Congress may hereafter fix the general tariff, the treaty differential in favor of American products must be preserved.

The four commercial agreements, which were concluded in 1898-1900 by authorization of Section 3 of the Dingley Tariff, and put into operation by proclamation of the President, without recourse to the Senate, represent a satisfactory test of the reciprocity principle. In compensation for the grant by the United States of the specified tariff concessions authorized by the law on argols, wines, spirits, paintings, and statuary, France granted the United States her minimum tariff on certain classes of meats, fruits, woods, and lard; Germany conceded to all imports the full benefit of her conventional tariff as created by the existing Caprivi reciprocity treaties; Italy lowered or "bound" her then existing rates on several important products; and Portugal made equally valuable tariff concessions in favor of flour, petroleum, agricultural machinery, etc.

The outlook for wide application of the reciprocity principle by treaty is not promising. President Roosevelt has ably and loyally carried out the McKinley policy, and there has been complete continuity in this respect since 1897. But the opposition to the Kasson Treaties has been too strong to permit of favorable action upon them in the Senate; all of them have lapsed as respects the exchange period, the French Treaty being almost the last to expire in September, 1903. The Newfoundland Treaty of 1902, by reason of opposition on the part of the Gloucester fishery interests, has apparently fared no better. Early negotiations with the leading sugar producing countries are virtually rendered impossible by an amendment to the Cuban Treaty forbidding further conventional reductions on that article. Reciprocity with Canada, however, continues to excite interest in some sections. It was one of the twelve topics considered by the High Joint Commission in 1898-1899, and in the event of the reassembling of that body a treaty would probably be agreed upon. Latterly the trend of sentiment among American statesmen and political economists has been distinctly in favor of the adoption by the United States of the double-tariff system used by France and a few other great commercial powers.

Washington, D. C., January 2, 1905.

THE FEDERAL CIVIL SERVICE IN 1904.

BY JOHN T. DOYLE, SECRETARY OF THE U. S. CIVIL SERVICE COMMISSION.

The act establishing competitive examinations was passed January 16, 1883. It established the United States Civil Service Commission with three Commissioners, not more than two of whom shall be of the same political party. The act provides for appointments among those graded highest, an apportionment of appointments in the departments at Washington among the States and Territories, a period of probation before absolute appointment, and the prohibition of the use of official authority to coerce the political action of any person or body. It forbids under penalty of fine or imprisonment or both, the solicitation by any Federal employee of political contributions from other employees, and the solicitation of such contributions in public buildings, and declares that no employee shall be prejudiced for giving or not giving any such contribution.

The number of positions subject to competitive examinations is approximately 154,000. The classified service, with 234,891 positions, embraces all who are not mere laborers or subject to confirmation by the Senate. The chief exceptions from examination are 71,193 fourth-class postmasters, 261 consuls, 4,500 pension examining surgeons, 10,855 employees at non-free delivery post-offices, 3,053 Indians in minor positions in the Indian service, 1,814 deputy collectors of internal revenue and 461 deputy marshals and clerks to United States attorneys. Of persons now in the service, 78,159 serving on July 1, 1903, were appointed as the result of competitive examinations. During the twelve months following 48,585 appointments were made through competition. The whole number of persons in the executive civil service is about 290,000, receiving an annual compensation of about \$180,000,000. The total compensation attached to competitive positions is about \$130,000,000. During the year ended June 30, 1904, 127,846 persons were examined by the Commission, of whom 100,078 passed. Besides these, 1,901 persons were examined for the Philippine service, and 385 were appointed. Examinations are held in every State and Territory twice a year, and range in scope from technical, professional, and scientific subjects, to those based wholly upon age, physical condition, experience and character as a workman. About 700 different kinds of examinations were held, each of which involved different tests, and more than half contained no educational test. There is a good chance of appointment for men stenographers, typewriters, draftsmen, and civil, mechanical, and electrical engineers, and for teachers, matrons, seamstresses, and physicians in the Indian service.

Unclassified laborers in the department at Washington are appointed upon competitive tests as to their physical condition, and examinations are also held for several other classes of unclassified positions, as for policemen in Washington and midshipmen in the Navy.

The Isthmian Canal Commission was classified on November 15, 1904.

An executive order of March 1, 1904, gave to 426 temporary employees connected with the Federal administration in the Philippines whose services merited retention the rights of classified employees. It also provided for future appointments under the civil service rules.

During the year 1904 free delivery was extended to 66 post-offices, and 178 employees were thus brought within the competitive service.

A manual of examinations and the later Annual Reports of the Commission may be had upon writing to it.

WOMAN SUFFRAGE.

PROPOSED BY MRS. CARRIE C. CATT, VICE-PRESIDENT OF THE NATIONAL AMERICAN WOMAN SUFFRAGE ASSOCIATION.—UNITED STATES.

In the United States women possess suffrage upon equal terms with men at all elections in four States; in Wyoming, established in 1869; in Colorado, 1893; in Utah, 1895; and in Idaho, 1896.

In Kansas, women possess school suffrage established in 1861, and municipal suffrage, 1887.

In eighteen additional States, women possess school suffrage; in Michigan and Minnesota, established in 1875; in New Hampshire and Oregon, 1878; in Massachusetts, 1879; in New York and Vermont, 1880; in Nebraska, 1883; in Wisconsin, 1885; in Washington, 1886; in Arizona, Montana, New Jersey, North Dakota and South Dakota, 1887; in Illinois, 1891; in Connecticut, 1893; in Ohio, 1894.

Two additional States permit women to vote upon the issuance of municipal bonds; Montana, established in 1887; Iowa, 1894.

Louisiana gave all women taxpayers the suffrage upon all questions of public expenditure in 1898.

Either full or fractional suffrage for women exists in twenty-six States.

AUSTRALIA.

There are in Australia three distinct classes of suffrage, municipal, parliamentary and federal. Women were given municipal suffrage in New South Wales in 1867; in Victoria, 1869; in West Australia, 1871; in New Zealand, 1877; in South Australia, 1880; in Tasmania, 1884.

Parliamentary suffrage was extended to women of New Zealand in 1893; in South Australia, 1895; in West Australia, 1900; in New South Wales, 1902; and Tasmania, in 1903.

In 1902, the first Federal Parliament extended the federal suffrage to all women in Australia upon the same terms as men. All women in Australia, therefore, upon the same terms as men, enjoy full municipal and federal suffrage, and the women of West Australia, South Australia, and New South Wales possess all forms of suffrage. The women of Victoria and Queensland do not possess the parliamentary suffrage. New Zealand is not federated, and hence there is no federal suffrage there; women and men vote upon equal terms in all elections.

EUROPE.

In the Isle of Man and Pitcairn Island, women have full suffrage. In England, Scotland, Ireland, and Wales, women vote for all elective officers, except members of Parliament. In 1898, women engaged in commerce in France were given the right to vote for judges of the tribunals of commerce. In Sweden, women vote for all elective officers, except representatives; also, indirectly for members of the House of Lords. In Norway, women vote for all officers, except members of Parliament. In Russia, women householders vote for all elective officers and on all local matters; in Finland, for all elective officers. Property-holding women in Westphalia, Schleswig-Holstein, and Brunswick may vote by proxy at local elections, and for members of provisional diets. Women who are land proprietors may vote in Bohemia by proxy for members of the Imperial Parliament and the local diet. In Saxony, women vote on the same terms as men; married women by proxy, a single woman directly. Women have municipal suffrage in Moravia by proxy. In Austria-Hungary, they vote by proxy for elective officers. In Croatia and Dalmatia, women vote at local elections in person. In Italy, widows with property vote by proxy for members of Parliament. In Prussia, women vote by proxy at elections and for members of provincial diets, and in Luxemburg for municipal officers and members of the legislature also. In Switzerland, women real estate owners have local suffrage in the canton of Berne. In Roumania, women taxpayers have municipal suffrage by proxy.

DIRECT LEGISLATION IN 1904,

BY ELTWEED POMEROY.

PRESIDENT OF THE NATIONAL DIRECT LEGISLATION LEAGUE.

Oregon.—In Oregon, a minor judge declared the Direct Legislation constitutional amendment adopted in 1902 unconstitutional because improperly adopted and because not agreeing with that part of the United States Constitution which guarantees a republican form of government to every State. This aroused a good deal of indignation, and at once a large body of able and influential men formed to carry it to the Supreme Court of the State, where after able arguments on both sides, the decision of the lower court was reversed and the amendment declared constitutional, in an opinion of great strength. This strengthens the Direct Legislation position for all time as now probably only the United States Supreme Court would declare an amendment unconstitutional and that is very unlikely.

Last winter, three groups of people in the State united to work for laws that they could not get separately through the Legislature. A Direct Primary League was formed containing most of those in the Direct Legislation League but entirely distinct. It drew up a law, had it subjected to the searching criticism of the best legal talent in the State, circulated initiative petitions for it, got the requisite number of signatures, 8 per cent., and it went to a referendum vote in June, 1904 and was carried by five or six to one. It cost this league less than \$2,000 for all expenses not including the unpaid advice and work which was very valuable, and it is said that better talent was employed in drafting this law than has sat in any Legislature of the State.

The temperance people had been unable to get a local option law through the Legislature, and they drew up a good, though rather stringent one, got the requisite number of signatures to their petitions and had it submitted to a vote, when it carried by three or four to one. Unlike the other bill, this one aroused strong opposition and it is said the brewers combined and raised \$75,000 to defeat it. An ardent campaign was waged both for and against it. The temperance people spent about \$4,500 in circulating the petitions and in campaign work.

These are the first two State laws ever actually enacted by the people. They did not go to the Legislature at all but were framed by a group of people discussed by all the people, the Secretary of State as by law directed, sent a printed copy of both to every voter in the State. The law permits any reasonable group of people to furnish printed arguments of a certain size paper and in a type to correspond with that used in the law, and the Secretary is obliged to circulate these with the laws, but this permission was not taken advantage of in either case. Then all the people voted on them and both were carried by good majorities. We claim that this was one of the really great political events of the year marking a new epoch in American law-making.

The third petition well illustrates the working of Direct Legislation in another direction. It was formulated by the Radicals among the Socialists, and was an extreme measure. They could not get the requisite number of signatures and hence it did not go to the polls.

Los Angeles.—The City of Los Angeles has the Recall in its charter, adopted at the same time as its Direct Legislation provisions in the fall of 1903. Last spring the people in one of its wards did not like the actions of their councillor. They prepared and circulated a petition for his recall. It was thrown out on a technicality. This spurred them on, and a big meeting was held and another petition circulated which soon got the requisite number of signatures, 25 per cent. The councillor carried it into the courts and a very interesting decision was handed down emphatically sustaining the Recall, and on September 17th the people of that ward dismissed their councillor and employed another for the unexpired term. This also is the first time that any public servant has ever been discharged in the United States during his term of office and another employed in his place. It too is one of the great political events of the year.

Denver.—This spring the people of Denver voted on a charter drawn up under the Rush amendment to the State constitution which contains full though too cumbersome Direct Legislative provisions. This makes the fifth city of over 100,000 with complete Direct Legislation.

Illinois.—In the spring, using the public Policy Law by which three questions can be submitted to the voters for an advisory vote, the Referendum League of Illinois, started a petition in Chicago and got the immense number of over 130,000 signatures to it. Legal attempts were made to throw it out but did not succeed, and the people of Chicago voted affirmatively on all three questions. This is not a real referendum, as the vote is only advisory, but much education was gained and many converts won to it.

During the summer, Mayor Harrison, who before his election had pledged himself to veto any franchise ordinance which did not have a referendum in it, came out and publicly said a certain ordinance was the best that could be obtained and unless a petition with 100,000 signatures to it, was gotten up and presented to him within three or four weeks, he would consider that there had been a silent referendum on the ordinance and he would sign it. Of course this was only a weak political trick to get around a public pre-election pledge, but the League had its hands full with a State petition under the Public Policy Law and had sorely taxed their limited resources. On their publicly stating such, Mayor Harrison indulged in some sneers, whereupon *The Chicago Examiner* printed the petitions and called for workers to get signatures. Not a worker was paid a cent, but within a month a dray was necessary to carry the immense petition to the City Hall to Mayor Harrison, who did not then dare to approve of this franchise ordinance. Two years ago, this could not have been done, but the work of the Referendum League has acquainted the people with the use of petitions, and this demonstrates its value.

The Referendum League secured over 100,000 signatures to their State petition, and three questions were submitted at the November elections. They were Direct Primaries, Direct Legislation and Local Option in Taxation. All three carried not only by large majorities, but also by actual majorities of all votes cast. A year ago, a similar referendum gave decisive majorities of the votes cast on it, but not majorities of the votes cast, as many more voted for candidates than on the referendum. This shows progress.

At the same November election, the people of the State voted on a constitutional amendment permitting the Legislature to make a special charter for Chicago, but this charter and all amendments to it must be submitted to a referendum of the people of Chicago.

Missouri.—During the summer, the Direct Legislation League of Missouri secured the adoption of Direct Legislation planks in the platforms of all parties in that State and made an active campaign for it in November. On the face of the returns, it was defeated, though its supporters believe this was a dishonest count. Its adoption meant the death-blow to corruption and special privileges, and it was therefore counted out. Seven of the men who voted against it in the legislature are either in jail or under indictment.

Other States.—The Montana Direct Legislation League secured the adoption of Direct Legislation planks by all parties in their State and have well-founded hopes of a passage of a Direct Legislation amendment by the next Legislature. Governor Toole is strongly in favor of it. The Legislature of Nevada passed a good amendment at its last session and we expect will pass it a second time this coming winter when it will be submitted to the people for their decision.

In California, Colorado, Illinois, and Arkansas there will be Direct Legislation amendments introduced and earnestly pushed in the Legislatures, with probabilities of passage particularly in California and Illinois. Amendments will be introduced in other Legislatures, but the probability of passage is not as good as in these four. In Michigan, the Direct Legislation League have an ingenious rule of procedure which they will push in the Legislature, and if they get a majority for it in one house, they get practically the referendum.

Municipalities.—San Francisco efficiently used its Direct Legislation charter provisions both this year and last.

The Direct Legislation League of Erie County (Buffalo), N. Y., failed to get the last Legislature to change the Buffalo charter, but they did secure the passage of an ordinance by the Common Council, giving them Direct Legislation and at the November election, the Buffalo citizens voted to open the public school buildings in the evenings for public discussion of questions of interest. A petition is started to have three other questions submitted under the same ordinance.

Across the Lake in Toronto, a majority of the aldermen have been pledged to Direct Legislation. It has been made an important issue, and Toronto will soon probably have some form of it. Other cities are moving toward it.

Many more minor facts could be given, but enough have been stated to show that Direct Legislation, while it is not a noisy, partisan issue—its friends are striving to keep it non-partisan—is making wonderful progress. Great politicians have not argued for or against Direct Legislation in our strenuous Presidential campaign. Great metropolitan papers have said little about it. But all over the country, groups of earnest, able men and women are ardently working for it without pay or hope of reward. The value of this work cannot be estimated, and it is this work that is quietly but surely carrying Direct Legislation forward. The underlying cause is that Direct Legislation is only democracy applied, and its growth demonstrates that at the core our people are still democratic—not in a partisan sense but in the true meaning of that noble word—and that they are determined by using Direct Legislation to change this from a government OF the people, BY the politicians and FOR the corporations to one that while it is OF the people is actually BY the people and hence is really and truly FOR the people.

NEW VOTERS' FESTIVALS.

BY LUCRETIA AMES MEAD.

The "New Voters' Festival," which for two years has gathered at Faneuil Hall, Boston, an audience of young men and newly naturalized voters, promises to be a potent influence in civic reform in the future. At first, an experiment, it has had such marked success as to ensure its being a regular Boston institution and a suggestion for similar meetings, which are now being planned in other cities. It originated in the mind of one of the directors of the Boston Equal Suffrage Association for Good Government, an association composed chiefly of public-spirited women. Under the auspices of this society, whose headquarters are at 6 Marlborough Street, the arrangements were carried out. Distinguished representatives of the city, State and church were invited to speak. Among those who heartily responded were the Mayor, the Lieutenant-Governor, Congressman McCall and the Bishop of the Episcopal Church in Massachusetts. A Roman Catholic priest and Jewish rabbi and well-known business men participated in the meetings and discussed "The Dangers of Democracy," "What Makes an American," "The Patriot's Duty to the Nation," "The Naturalized Citizen," "The Patriot's Duty to the World," etc. A male chorus and an orchestra of High-School boys furnished music, the chorus rendering "To Thee, O Country" and "Angel of Peace," the audience rising and joining with the chorus in the closing hymn, "God Bless Our Native Land."

The historic hall was decorated around the gallery with rich red drapery, interspersed with names, written in blue on a white ground, of a dozen or more of Boston men whom the nation delights to honor—Winthrop, Adams, Hancock, Garrison, Phillips Brooks, etc.

At the first meeting special tickets were mailed to each citizen of twenty or twenty-one years old; at the second meeting this expensive method was abandoned and, after due advertisement, the doors were opened to young men and included those from seventeen to twenty-five years of age. On one page of the program was printed the Public Library numbers of a list of books on civics and American history, which list each was asked to keep and use.

Large audiences attended both meetings, and rapt attention was given to the speakers. The most impressive feature of the last meeting was the recitation from the Freeman's Oath of 1634 which was prefaced by a few fit and serious words by a clergyman and then solemnly read while the audience stood each with right hand uplifted—"I do solemnly bind myself that I will give my

vote and suffrage as I shall judge in mine own conscience may best conduce to the public weal, so help me God."

The meetings are held on Sunday afternoons early in the spring before the weather tempts to country outings and at a time of year when partisan spirit is least rife. Party politics are excluded from discussion, and the sole endeavor is to welcome new voters to the sacred responsibilities of citizenship, to emphasize the privileges and responsibility of suffrage, and to inculcate civic patriotism.

PROGRESS OF THE SINGLE TAX, 1904.

BY HENRY GEORGE, JR.

This principle calls for the abolition of all taxes, local, State and Federal, save that falling on land values; that single tax to be increased until practically the entire value of land, irrespective, exclusive of improvements, is taken for public uses.

The most important advance toward this principle in the United States was made under the amended New York City charter requiring: 1. Full and equal assessment of real estate. 2. Separation in the assessor's reports of land values from the total land and improvement values, and (3) the publication of these reports, as finally approved, in the *City Record*. Under this amendment the total assessment of real estate in the city for 1904 was approximately \$4,730,000,000, of which \$3,070,000,000 was the value of the land, and \$1,660,000,000, the value of improvements. In the chief borough of this city, Manhattan, the assessment is believed to have been raised generally to within 90 or 95 per cent. of the full value of real estate. In Brooklyn and the other boroughs where there is a great quantity of vacant land, this assessment is not believed to have been raised so high. Although the tax rate has been reduced, the "equalization" movement has greatly increased the assessment, and hence this tax burden, on vacant lots; and this, but for the strikes and lockouts in the building trades, would have resulted in a great stimulation in 1904 in the erection of buildings, chiefly residences, factories and retail stores. The expectation for 1905 is that, with peace in the building trades, there will be a spurt in building operations owing to the increased penalty, in the form of taxation arising from a higher assessment, upon holding valuable land idle.

Steady progress is being made in Australasia toward increasing taxation on land values and exempting other things.

The most important forward step in Great Britain was the introduction into Parliament in March, 1903, by Mr. C. P. Trevelyan, promoted by the larger municipal governments of the country, of a bill for the separate assessment of land values in municipalities and the optional concentration of all local taxation thereon. A similar bill, introduced by Dr. McNamara the year before, had been beaten in the overwhelmingly Conservative House of Commons by a majority of only eleven. So strong had local sentiment grown in the meanwhile that, although Mr. Balfour and other representatives of the Ministry spoke in opposition to the Trevelyan bill this year, the "Government whips" were not allowed to "tell" against it. A Conservative member seconded the bill and thirty-six Conservative members voted for it. Not a single Liberal or Nationalist member spoke or voted against it, while their chief leaders spoke for it. It passed its second reading in the Commons by a majority of 67, and although the Government has been able to prevent its further progress, the deep significance of the vote was voiced by the *London Daily News*, which said: "Yesterday's vote is, to our thinking, comparable in importance with the historic vote that swept away the corn laws. We say that any step to relieve the taxation of homes by transferring the burden to the land, is every whit as momentous as the movement that gave cheap food to the people."

MUNICIPAL PROGRESS, 1904.

BY CLINTON ROGERS WOODRUFF, SECRETARY OF THE NATIONAL MUNICIPAL LEAGUE, PHILADELPHIA.

Disclosures, investigations, indictments, trials, convictions for municipal shortcomings and dishonesty have been the order of the day throughout the country to an unprecedented, and from one point of view, an appalling extent. From Milwaukee comes word that one grand jury found twelve bills of indictment charging eight city officials with various forms of corruption. A subsequent grand jury indicted seven more. A Green Bay (Wis.) grand jury found eighteen true bills against seven city officials, and one has been convicted.

In Minneapolis five former city officials were convicted and sentenced to State prison for connection with the Ames scandals, although some escaped actual imprisonment on technical points.

Through the confession of a former city attorney, in November, 1903, all the details of the Grand Rapids water conspiracy of 1900 and 1901 were revealed. As a result of this confession, fourteen aldermen and ex-aldermen, an ex-mayor, an ex-member of the Board of Public Works, a State Senator, a deputy city marshal, an ex-city clerk, four newspaper men and three attorneys were arrested, charged with bribery, conspiracy, perjury, attempted subornation of perjury, and attempted jury bribery. Thus far three have confessed and are witnesses for the prosecution, three have been convicted. The peculiar phase of the situation is that certain of the daily newspapers are involved so that the people of the city are not able to get full reports of the court proceedings.

Denver has a League for Honest Elections. It was organized on October 1, 1903, after a charter election which was described as "a carnival of corruption." Fraud was so brazen and carried to such an extent that a meeting of citizens was called and the league formed. Thus far seven defendants, including a State senator and a deputy county clerk, have been found guilty of padding registration lists; nineteen defendants are awaiting trial; six others are wanted and cannot be found. Some of the defendants are women.

A far western correspondent, an important State official, himself charged with important powers of investigation, writes that "there is a general shaking up in municipal affairs going on throughout the West. An effort is being made, such as never before, to arrive at some definite form of administration of public funds that will show without too much elaboration the disposition of the people's money." and prevent its dishonest use or diversion. Chief Powers of the Census Bureau in an address mentioned the fact that in one day his bureau had requests from its agents in three different towns in the United States for modifications of their instructions, since the books that they were to investigate were in the hands of grand juries and they could not do any work.

In Chicago a notable "graft" investigation was conducted by a special committee of the City Council, appointed by the Mayor. These disclosures showed the existence of a system, covering nearly the entire city, by which inspectors exacted the payment of certain fixed sums for allowing plumbers to omit the tests required by the city ordinances. As a result of the upheaval, the Sanitary Bureau has been placed under the direction of an efficient and capable head and is now in a fair way to become an effective safeguard of the public health.

The Investigating Committee was in session for several months, during which time it inquired into charges affecting the employees of other departments. As a result of its recommendations, about fifty city employees lost their positions and many valuable changes were brought about in connection with the various departments, particularly in the matter of securing a better system of public

records. The Citizens' Association presented to the Investigating Committee a mass of evidence against police officers. Four of the indicted police officers have thus far been convicted. The facts brought out by the investigation have resulted in a thorough shake-up of the Police Department and in greatly increasing its efficiency.

An investigation of the policy-shop evil in Chicago was begun by the same association and a report published showing that there were at least 1,200 policy shops in the city, with daily receipts of at least \$18,000 and annual receipts of more than \$5,500,000, with an annual profit to the members of the policy "syndicate" of nearly \$2,000,000. The demoralizing effect upon local politics exercised by the policy "syndicate" was pointed out, and the fact emphasized that policy is so conducted as to have become more contemptible than gambling and to amount to theft.

In St. Louis, Joseph W. Folk was greatly handicapped in his punishment of confessed and convicted boodlers by the technicalities of the law, which, originally devised to prevent injustice being done to the one innocent man among the 100, are now being utilized to prevent the 99 guilty men from getting their just deserts. The jury found "Boss" Butler of St. Louis guilty, but sentence was reversed because, as one observer put it, "there was an attempt by a de facto boodler to bribe a de facto board of health, and to get a de facto 'rake-off' from the cost of removing de facto garbage under a de facto contract made by virtue of a de facto law, and the de facto boodler was convicted by a de facto jury in a de facto court and sentenced to a de facto penitentiary. If the Supreme Bench of Missouri had been less impressed by technicalities, Butler would now be serving a de facto sentence at de facto labor."

It may seem strange that an article on "Municipal Progress" should begin with a recital of disclosures, investigations, indictments, trials, convictions for shortcomings and dishonesty, but it is certainly a sign of progress that these evils and iniquities have been exposed, and in many instances punished.

It is doubtful whether there has ever been a time in the history of this country when the people were so aggressive and determined to introduce strictly business methods into public service.

Every scandal brought to light and every offender punished is a move in the right direction and a sure index of improved conditions for the future.

And yet municipal corruption must be compared with other evils. The United States Fidelity and Trust Company is authority for the statement that in 1901 the banks of the country lost \$1,665,109 from defalcations, and in 1902, \$1,709,301.

The editor of *Midland Municipalities* is responsible for the statement that the loss of federal, county and municipal governments from the same cause was \$1,283,055 in 1901, and \$1,067,789 in 1902. So that for these two years the employees and officers of banks defaulted in the amount of \$1,024,569 more than did all the public officials in the country. This is an interesting and in some ways a remarkable showing, as the opinion quite generally prevails that there is more dishonesty in public than private service and especially on the part of municipal employees. To be sure, these figures do not take into consideration the exorbitant prices which the city, State or nation is oftentimes compelled to pay; but, on the other hand, the bank figures do not take into consideration the profits accruing from watered stock and other peculiar devices for making money. They cover solely the question of honesty and show that the average run of public office is as honest—yes, a little more so—than the average run of bank officers. As the editor of the *Midland Municipalities* pertinently remarks, "The fact is that neither the bankers nor the officials are as a class dishonest, but, on the contrary, look after the interests in their care much better than the average man looks after his business. With the vast sums handled each year by the officials or the banks, the amount lost in defalcations is exceptionally

small, so small that when compared with the whole they are hardly worth notice, much less an excuse for general condemnation."

NEW YORK CITY.

The New York election of 1903 was quite generally regarded as a serious setback for the cause of reform. Mayor Low's administration had established new standards and friends of reform were anxious for a deliberate and unqualified endorsement of the really great accomplishment of the two years of reform. It did not come, yet we need not conclude that all was lost. There are some things which, when once done, cannot be wholly undone, and municipal progress is one of them. There may be, in fact there often is, a reaction because, as the chairman of the New York City Republican Committee put it, "people take reform as medicine rather than as food," but the reaction has never been as great as the former advance, and so we have a net progress. The events which have taken place since Mayor McClellan's inauguration, amply support this position.

The discouraging aspect of the election was the evidence that unswerving defense of the public interest did not convert enough previously hostile votes to offset the interested suffrages. On the other hand, it must not be forgotten that the members of reform administration become personally unpopular. "They are compelled to antagonize many individuals, while most of their services are to the impersonal public, and not to individuals. As personal resentment is a far stronger motive than general public spirit, a political campaign for the re-election of the reformers frequently results in defeat.

There is another cause assigned for the defeat of reform. Too many of Mayor Low's friends conducted a campaign of "unparalleled violence and scurrility." Mayor Low's truly great accomplishments were left untouched, while his earnest but unwise supporters were busy declaring that "only thugs and thieves would vote for McClellan." The old dodge of reviling your opponent has lost its efficacy.

As to the progress, however, it seems to be unquestionable. The administration which has been in control since January 1, 1904, has thus far given New York the best *partisan* government that the city has ever experienced, and it is manifest that the enlightened mayoralty of Seth Low has created a public demand that must hereafter be reckoned with.

That the Mayor himself gives every evidence of a sincere desire to administer the city's affairs conscientiously is unmistakable.

OTHER CITIES.

There are many and increasing signs of improvement.

In Harrisburg the good work of Mayor Vance C. McCormick has been continued. The police have been divorced from crime. Honest and efficient public service was Mayor McCormick's platform, and he is daily justifying the confidence reposed in him two years ago.

In Baltimore the results of the last mayoralty election were most satisfactory. Mr. McLane, the Democratic candidate for Mayor, who was reluctantly accepted by the "ring" because it hoped his high personal character and excellent record as State's attorney would "pull through" the rest of the ticket, was elected by a plurality of between 500 and 600; but his two "running mates," who were really "ring" candidates, were both beaten. On the other hand, the Republicans, by losing the mayoralty and the first branch of the City Council, were very properly rebuked for nominating a man who, as they were fully warned,

could not get the independent vote. This election differed from any of its predecessors: the politicians of both parties were utterly disgusted the next morning.

Indianapolis likewise established a new record for local independence, defeating by some 6,000 votes the Republican candidate, who was supported by the brewery, gambling and corporation combine, and this though the two United States Senators mistakenly lent their personal sanction and influence to the "ring." Former Attorney General W. H. Miller, of President Harrison's Cabinet, set a strong example of civic patriotism by vigorously declaring that no party obligation bound him to support an unfit candidate for mayor. The new administration may not, and I believe does not, represent a very high degree of public service, but its choice demonstrates that the voters of the city can free themselves from party ties when necessary.

CHICAGO.

In Chicago the friends of good government again triumphed at the polls on April 6. In the words of the secretary of the Municipal Voters' League, the "election taken as a whole is another and a significant victory for independent voting in Chicago. Bossism has been ignominiously defeated, while wise party leaders have seen their wisdom ratified at the polls. Apathy has been the one great danger from the first, and in the Twenty-third Ward it has claimed one victory in Alderman Herrmann. His loss will be seriously felt in the Council. He has headed the councilmanic 'graft' investigation and one of the Street Railway Commissions, although his opponent was by no means condemned by the League. As a whole, however, the city is to be most heartily congratulated. Had the forces of decency been united in the Fifth Ward, the hide of a gray wolf skinned in 1901 would have been permanently tanned."

KANSAS CITY.

In Kansas City the friends of decency and the Civic League likewise scored a victory on April 6. The then mayor, who had been using his office to further political ends, was sharply rebuked, his candidate for mayor being defeated. Moreover, the Civic League insisted upon the various candidates declaring their attitude on the merit system. It endorsed none who were unfavorable, and as a very considerable number of them were elected, the gain is a pronounced one. The new administration has not waited for the enactment of a new civil service law or ordinance, but has forthwith established the merit system.

ST. LOUIS.

In some respects the most significant event in St. Louis during the administration of Rolla Wells as Mayor was the action of the Taxpayers' League, which sent the following letter to its members:

By resolution duly adopted, the Board of Managers of the League, at its last meeting, levied an assessment of five dollars against the members, payable on or before June 15. It is worthy of note that this assessment, but half the regular annual assessment permissible under the articles of agreement, is the first one since 1901, and in all probability will be the last for several years to come. The reason is, that owing to the high character of the men now in charge of our city's government there is little or no work for the League to do within the scope of its charter; for the occasion is a rare one indeed when an honest official is guilty of a misuse of public funds. Misappropriations in the vast majority of cases are the fruits of conscious wrong-doing, not of innocent mistake; and if there were any assurance that the administrations to come in the future would reach the high standard of the present one, both in respect of efficiency and integrity, the League might well wind up its affairs. The inability of the managers to indulge this hope has led them to adopt the other alternative, namely, of keeping the organization intact and of waiting, like Micawber, for something to "turn up."

This forms a striking tribute to the honesty and general well meaning of the administration of Mayor Rolla Wells, coming as it does from an organization composed in large part, we are informed, of partisan opponents.

Cleveland has demonstrated its municipal independence in a marked degree. In the April (1903) election, it rebuked State interference in local affairs and re-elected Mr. Johnson. In the autumn it rebuked Mr. Johnson's projection of municipal officials into State politics. Both practices are objectionable, and the Cleveland voters rejected both.

The spirit of Cleveland in municipal matters is progressive, and its general trend has been toward good government. The trend in Chicago is certainly upward. So in Rochester, which enjoys the distinction of having had a succession of good mayors, the present one representing a high order of public service. Moreover, this city rescued her schools from politics a few years ago, and in November, 1903, defeated an effort to bring them again under political influence. Again, in November, 1904, the voters displayed their discrimination and political independence by electing a Democratic auditor at the same time they gave to the Republican presidential electors an unprecedented majority.

The experience of Galveston shows what American ability can accomplish when it sets itself seriously at work to solve the municipal problem; but one is tempted to ask why should our American cities wait until dire necessity overtakes them before applying business methods to evils that cry aloud for correction?

In San Francisco, the last election for supervisors was highly satisfactory. Most of those members of the old board who during the past four years had proved themselves to be honest and capable officials were re-elected. While some of the newly elected supervisors are as yet untried it is felt that the majority of the board is made up of men who can be depended upon to work honestly for the best interests of the people.

The signs of improvement to which we have just given attention are mainly due to the activities of bodies like the Municipal Voters' League of Chicago, the Civic League of Kansas City, the Good Government League of Boston, the City Club of Galveston, the Merchants' Association of San Francisco, the Citizens' Association of Chicago. There has been no cessation of activity on the part of the old organizations, and the new ones have added their new-found zeal to the experience of those which have borne the brunt of the fight for years.

The Detroit Municipal League secured for the first time, in any franchise granted by the Common Council, a provision by which the city may inspect the accounts and books of a public service corporation for the purpose of ascertaining the cost of production as a basis for regulating the rates to be charged. It was instrumental in securing the passage of a primary election law for Wayne County; and prepared and procured the adoption of an ordinance establishing an Art Commission in Detroit with powers similar to the New York Art Commission, which has been a potent influence for higher standards.

The Boston Good Government League, the Indianapolis Citizens' League, the Milwaukee Municipal Voters' League, the Pittsburg Civic Voters' League, are all advisory bodies, basing their recommendations, like the Chicago Municipal Voters' League, upon a careful examination of candidate's personal and public records. The City Club of Galveston is responsible for the present charter and the present excellent government of that city. The City Club and Citizens' Union of New York form the nuclei in New York around which the good government forces rally, the first named contributing the educational, the latter the political, center.

The Home Protective League of Minneapolis has made it its business to insist upon the enforcement of the law, and especially in so far as it provides for the protection of minors from the evils of the saloon and wine-room. It has just scored a victory in closing up the most notorious and offensive resort in the

city. The newly organized City Club of Chicago has already justified its existence. It has not only served as a social rallying point for municipal reformers of all types, but it has, moreover, made two important investigations: one, that of Mr. Freeman, into the condition of the theatres; the other, that of Captain Piper, into the condition of the police.

The Merchants' Association of San Francisco continues as a model of all that a business body should be for the improvement of local conditions.

The Los Angeles Municipal League is another most useful body. It is becoming recognized as a body of municipal experts, primarily and deeply interested in the public welfare.

There is still another group of organizations from which much is to be expected. I refer to those composed of municipal officials like the League of American Municipalities, the American Society for Municipal Improvements and the various State leagues, like those in Wisconsin, Michigan, California, Iowa, Ohio, Indiana, Alabama, and among the cities of the third class in Pennsylvania. The first three maintain monthly publications that are devoted to the discussion of the various needs of the cities, and to the general phases of the problem. Moreover, their annual meetings serve to bring together for a profitable interchange of views and experience those charged with active municipal duties.

Who, ten years ago, would have thought of prophesying that mayors, councilmen and other city officials would meet at a great university to discuss with political scientists the questions incident to municipal administration?

The National Municipal League is another important factor in bringing together the various elements working for improved conditions, in providing a clearing house for an exchange of news, and a forum for the discussion of municipal problems, in a careful consideration of remedies and the promulgation of a literature that has won for itself an established place in the domain of municipal problems.

Another fact of marked and encouraging significance is the bringing of such bodies as the League of American Municipalities, the American Park and Outdoor Art Association, the American League for Civic Improvement, the Architectural League, the Eastern Conference of Public Education Associations and the National Municipal League into an Alliance of Civic Organizations.

In view of what just has been said there would seem to be no need for more organizations, but there has been established in New York a Juvenile City League, which is deserving not only of serious attention and study, but, moreover, of imitation. The idea is not altogether a new one, for there have been good citizenship clubs in existence in Philadelphia formed for somewhat similar ends, which have proved helpful and successful, and the St. Louis Civic Improvement League has established a series of junior leagues to bring the children of that city into line.

The Juvenile City League of New York is an organization of boys' clubs started on the middle West Side to lead the boys into a right attitude toward their city and its government by getting them to perform such simple duties as are natural and proper for them to observe.

What with the school cities and the various other efforts at student self-government, with junior leagues and clubs such as are to be found in New York, Chicago, St. Louis, Philadelphia, Omaha, the playgrounds and school gardens, there is abundant evidence that the American people are awakening to the necessity of getting children started right in the discharge of duties as citizens.

MUNICIPAL OWNERSHIP.

The whole subject of the municipal ownership, control and operation of public service franchises continues to occupy an important place in the various cities. That the voters are generally favorable to municipal ownership has been

illustrated time and again, and as late as April 6, in a most emphatic manner in the Chicago vote on the Mueller bill, when 120,744 were cast in its favor and but 50,893 against it. Whenever the question has been submitted in Chicago, the majority in favor of the policy of municipal ownership has been overwhelming, possibly because the condition is acute, but more probably because the people are convinced that the supply of water, lighting, transportation, as important municipal functions, should be controlled by the public and not by individuals or private corporations, no matter how honest or efficient. But it is not alone Chicago that shows such sentiment. Word comes from Duluth, Minn., that "in the course of five and one-half years operation by the municipality, through its Water and Light Board, the water rates have been reduced one-third and the gas rates from \$1.90 to 90 cents per one thousand feet for illuminating purposes, and from \$1.00 to 75 cents for fuel purposes. In addition to this saying to the consumer in rate reduction of approximately a quarter million dollars, there is now on hand an accumulated surplus of \$90,000, and the department has expended \$276,000 in interest on the bonded cost of a supplementary system constructed by the city and essential to a pure water supply. The service given is absolutely of the best and universally satisfactory."

From Meadville, Pa., we learn that "the city is entirely satisfied with the public ownership of the water-works and the electric lighting plant." Lincoln, Neb., has so successfully conducted her water-works that she proposed to furnish electric lights. In Burlington, Vt., the election turned on the municipal ownership of the electric light, those favoring the proposition prevailing.

The Legislature of Nebraska has passed a law compelling the city government of Omaha to take over water-works. The experience of the Sioux City (Iowa) Municipal League is illustrative of what public opinion, when sufficiently aroused and intelligently and effectively guided, can accomplish. Shortly after this body was organized the local gas and electric company asked the city council for a twenty-five years gas and electric franchise without offering any return whatever to the people of the city. The League immediately took up the matter, and demanded concessions, which, of course, were refused. The council, instead of joining in the demand, passed the ordinance and ordered the submission of the franchise to a vote of the people, in compliance with the statute. The League immediately organized for a fight, and was so successful in securing the support of public sentiment that the gas company withdrew its franchise shortly before the date fixed for the election. A committee of the League subsequently met the management of the gas company and succeeded in securing the following concessions:—

1. An immediate reduction in the price of gas of ten cents per M, and a further provision that the prices should be reduced five cents per M per annum until the price reached \$1.00.
2. The payment of 2 per cent of the gross receipts to the city.
3. A provision for the purchase of the plant by the city at the end of ten years or any five years thereafter at the cost of duplication. It was over this provision that the company held out the longest.
4. The surrender of all its unexpired franchises.
5. A provision for inspection.
6. A provision for the placing of all electric wires in underground conduits when the councils should demand it.

Recently an independent company asked for a telephone franchise. The League secured a 2-per cent. gross receipt provision; a provision for forfeiture in the event of a sale to a competing company, another provision placing all wires underground within a certain district, and a provision that the company shall permit all independent toll lines to enter the city through its exchange.

The movements for uniform municipal accounting and reports continue to grow with undiminished vigor. Our own committee, which has contributed so much to their progress and has served to co-ordinate the various bodies and

committees interested, will report on the details, but there are several features which call for mention in this review.

Later, in 1903, the United States Census Bureau called a conference to consider ways and means for assisting the Government in ascertaining, by the establishment of a uniform system, the yearly financial condition of the cities. It was attended by a representative group of auditors, comptrollers, expert accountants, students. City after city is falling into line, and the day is not far distant when students will be able to avail themselves of a fairly extensive set of uniform reports dealing with municipal business. The cities of the second and third classes in New York, as all the Ohio cities, are already under the necessity of preparing such reports, and in all the more important cities the question is agitated.

There is a provision in the California law that has proved to be most useful. Once a year a grand jury must meet in each county and appoint experts to go through the various books of the locality to ascertain if everything is in order. The value of this lies in the fact that it provides the needed ounce of prevention.

There is as constant an agitation for charter reform as reported in previous years. The demands upon the League for information concerning charters, and especially about the municipal programme, continues to increase.

Nomination reform continues to occupy the time and attention of a large part of the country. The Luce Law has been given a fair opportunity in Boston and some other cities of Massachusetts. It has been only moderately successful; but only because it did not go far enough in the direction of affording the voters a full, fair and adequate opportunity of expressing their purposes and interest.

EDITORIAL NOTES ON OTHER CITIES.

Boston.—Mr. Edmund Billings writes us that in the December Municipal Election, the Good Government Association endorsed 5 Republicans and 4 Democrats and elected 6 of them,—4 who would not have been chosen without its endorsement. Boston, he thinks, not so corrupt as many other large cities, and fortunate in having had with few exceptions, honest mayors, though its Board of Aldermen has been in the main unsatisfactory.

Kansas City.—We are indebted to Mr. H. L. McCune for the statement that there has been a marked civic improvement during the past year. There is no boodling. The new Mayor and Council elected last spring promised and are giving a business administration. Much credit for this is to be given to the Civic League. The City is preparing a new charter.

New Orleans.—Mr. J. P. Baldwin writes that in New Orleans, being in the "Solid South," there is practically but one party, that the new city administration promises liberally, that reform elements have controlled the ward leaders to some extent, but that the Governor's extensive patronage is pernicious to the highest degree.

Philadelphia.—Mr. Charles Richardson writes that that city, being overwhelmingly under control of the same party as governs the State, conditions have become so corrupt that the most vigorous efforts seem needed for the protection of the public and that a new reform organization is being developed with new leaders and new methods.

MUNICIPAL OWNERSHIP IN THE UNITED STATES.

BY M. N. BAKER, C. E., ASSOCIATE EDITOR ENGINEERING NEWS,
NEW YORK CITY.

With the single exception of water-works, the United States is far behind Great Britain in municipal ownership. In Great Britain municipal gas and electric lighting plants and municipal street railways are common and are increasing in numbers. In addition, British municipalities are launching many other kinds of undertakings rarely or never provided by the cities and towns of America.

The water-works of nearly all the large cities, and of 55 to 60 per cent. of all cities and towns of the United States, are municipally owned. Next in order come electric lighting plants, but many of these do no commercial lighting; that is, they light public streets and buildings only. We have 25 to 30 municipal gas plants, a few ferries, and one or two municipal street railway systems. So far as revenue-producing works subject to franchise are concerned, this practically closes the list.

Of sewerage systems, generally supposed to be wholly municipal, there are a few owned and operated by private companies, under franchises and for profit: notably, Atlantic City, N. J.; Wilmington, N. C.; Natchez, Miss.; Shreveport, La., and Leadville, Colo. Other instances of privately-owned sewers, generally short lines which are often cooperative rather than profit-making enterprises, bring the total number of systems and partial systems up to, perhaps, fifty.

Early in 1902, I tempted to take a cross-section, so to speak, of municipal ownership in all places in the United States, which in 1900 had populations of 3,000 or over. I showed, in "The Municipal Year Book" of the date named, what public services existed in each of the 1,524 cities and towns, and summarized the ownership: (1) for the whole country; (2) by population groups; and (3) by geographical groups. I also tabulated the ownership by cities, arranged in size from greatest to least, thus forming a convenient means of comparing the ownership status of a given city with that of all others in the country of about the same size.

The space here available permits reprinting only one of the tables just named, as follows:

MUNICIPAL AND PRIVATE OWNERSHIP IN 1902, IN 1,524 CITIES AND TOWNS
HAVING POPULATIONS OF 3,000 OR MORE IN 1900.

	Water-works	Sewers	Electric lights	Gas works	Street railways	Tele-phones
Places reporting systems.	1,475	1,096	1,471	981	928	1,466
Public.	766	1,045	193	20	1	0
Company.	661	42	1,190	956	927	1,465
Both public and company.	33	5	85	3		
Joint.	14		2	2		
Ownership not given.	1	4	1			1
None.	46	411	51	533	589	43
No report.	3	17	2	10	7	15

Central heating stations, not included in the foregoing table, were reported as existing in 119 cities and towns of 3,000 population and upwards, while a few in still smaller places were known to exist. Thus central heating stations, for the commercial supply of heat to houses and places of business, existed in at least as many towns in the year 1902 as there were water-works (122) in the year 1860. All but one of the central heating stations were owned by private companies, and the exception (Webster City, Ia.) was chiefly for supplying public buildings. Most of the central heating stations are combined with electric light or railway systems, utilizing exhaust which would otherwise go to waste. Six companies had combined central heating, gas, electric lighting and street railway plants.

Although having little direct bearing upon what is commonly understood as the municipal ownership question, the following table is suggestive as showing in part how the municipalities of the United States (3,000 or more of population) are attempting to meet the varied wants of their citizens:

NUMBER OF CITIES AND TOWNS REPORTING (IN 1902) THAT THEY OWNED PARKS, PLAYGROUNDS, GYMNASIUMS, MARKETS, CEMETERIES AND WHARVES.
PLACES REPORTING.

GROUPS OF STATES	All places	Parks	Play-grounds	Gymna-siums ¹	Mar-kets	Ceme-teries	Wharves
New England.....	234	125	51	2	3	73	2
Middle.....	337	141	39	1	36	24	20
South Atlantic.....	116	40	11	1	25	38	10
South Central.....	97	38	13	19	27	11
North Central.....	382	201	41	2	28	97	15
Northwestern.....	155	100	16	9	36	1
Southwestern.....	132	64	9	8	36	2
Pacific.....	71	38	7	1	16	5
Total.....	1,524	747	187	6	129	347	66

¹ Boston and Cambridge, Mass; New York City (school); Savannah, Ga.; Marion, Ind.; Muskegon, Mich.

MUNICIPAL OWNERSHIP IN GREAT BRITAIN.

The (English) Municipal Year Book for 1904, summarizes the Report on Municipal Trading made in 1903 by the Joint Committee of Parliament. On March 31, 1902, there were carried on by municipal boroughs in England and Wales, 193 water works, 97 gas works, 102 electric plants, 29 tramways, owned and worked by municipalities. Sixteen tramways, owned but not worked by municipalities, 228 markets, 138 baths and wash houses, 143 burial grounds, 24 working class dwellings, undertakings, 43 piers, docks, etc., and 16 other reproductive undertakings.

The total capital, inclusive of borrowed capital, provided by the municipalities, was \$605,861,860. Of this, \$585,164,615 was borrowed, and \$81,232,595 had been paid back. The average annual income was \$65,203,555 and the average annual operating expenses, \$41,143,530. An annual average of \$966,370 was set aside for depreciation, and the average annual amounts paid on principal and interest were \$6,322,720 and \$14,879,530 respectively, leaving a net annual average profit of \$1,891,405. There was, however, a loss of \$1,467,190 on baths and wash houses, burial grounds, working-class dwellings, harbors, docks, etc., not intended to be remunerative, so that on the municipal gas works, water works, electric plants, tramways, and markets there was, after allowing for depreciation and interest a net profit of \$3,362,595.

SOME RESULTS.

Water.—A good and cheap supply is given to the public, and improved public health.

Gas.—The municipal charge averages 2s. 8d., as against 2s. 11d. of the companies. In many towns street lighting is free.

Tramways.—The one year's working of municipal tramways shows an increase of 182 miles of lines, an increase of net revenue *per track mile* of £327, an increase of 226,000,000 passengers, and an increase of 35,000,000 miles run.

MUNICIPAL GAS IN THE UNITED STATES.

BY PROF. EDWARD W. BEMIS, CLEVELAND, OHIO.

"Brown's Directory of American Gas Companies for 1904," which is the standard compilation in this country upon gas companies, gives the following information upon municipal gas works.

UNITED STATES.

PLACE	Population of District Supplied	Annual Sales	Miles of Mains	Process of Manufacturing	Net Price for Light	Net Price for Fuel	Per Cent. Sold for Fuel	Candle Power (1)
UNITED STATES:		<i>Feet</i>						
Gilroy, Cal.....	1,800	2,000,000	3.5	Coal	\$3.00	\$2.50	40	18
Santa Clara, Cal.....	3,700	8,000,000	10.0	Lowe and Crude Oil	1.75	(2)1.75	30	22
Duluth, Minn.....	30,000	85,000,000	.44	Low	.90	(3).90	30	22
Henderson, Ky.....	15,000	15,000,000	.12	Coal	(4)1.00	(4)1.00	Small	(4)18
Bellefontaine, O.....	8,500	36,000,000	.14	Low	1.25	.75	70	23
Hamilton, O.....	25,000	73,000,000	.37	(Kendall) Coal & Oil	.80	.80	45	20
Wheeling, Va.....	40,000	115,000,000	.21	Coal	(4).75	(5).75	16
Alexandria, Va.....	17,000	28,000,000	.15	Coal	1.20	1.20	18
Charlottesville, Va....	8,000	15,000,000	.15	Coal	.80 to .90	.80 to .90	12	16.3
Danville, Va.....	17,000	38,000,000	12.	Coal	1.00	1.00	16
Fredericksburg, Va....	6,000	6,400,000	7	Coal	1.25	1.25	18 to 20
Richmond, Va.....	95,000	342,350,000	83	Coal & Lowe	1.00	1.00	(5)25
Holyoke, Mass.....	47,600	109,000,000	36.7	Coal & Lowe	(6)1.35	(6)1.25	18.5
Middleboro, Mass.....	6,900	1,625,000	3.25	Oil	2.61	2.09	26
Wakefield, Mass.....	14,500	14,000,000	13	Coal	1.50	1.50	45	18.6
Westfield, Mass.....	12,310	18,150,000	13	Coal	1.64	1.64	19.4
CANADA								
Moncton, N. B.....	9,000	5,000,000	4.7	Coal	1.60	1.00	10	18
Pictou, N. S.....	3,000	2,500,000	7	Coal	2.50	(6)1.25	1	19
Berlin, Ont.....	10,000	10,000,000	8.3	Water Gas	1.50 to 1.85	1.25	25	22
Brockville, Ont.....	9,000	20,000,000	12	Water Gas	(7)2.00	1.00	40	21
Guelph, Ont.....	12,000	16,000,000	Low	(8)1.50 to 1.80	1.00	40	20
Owen Sound, Ont....	4,000	8,000,000	3	Water Gas and Coal	1.60 to 1.80	1.20	15	23
Sorel, Quebec.....	9,400	7,000,000	6	Coal	1.50	1.00	6	15

(1) Candle power.

(2) Gross price.

(3) Now 75 cents.

(4) Now 80 cents.

(5) Natural gas at 18 cents and 20 cents is mostly used for fuel purposes.

(6) Now \$1.20.

(7) \$1.50 in 1903-4.

(8) In 1903-4 sales were 20,000,000 feet, and price for light \$1.35.

It will be observed that according to this table there were two plants in California; one in Minnesota and Kentucky; two in Ohio; one in West Virginia; five in Virginia and four in Massachusetts, or a total in the United States of sixteen; while there are seven in Canada. Only six, however, Duluth, Minn., Hamilton, Ohio, Wheeling, W. Va., Richmond, Va., and Holyoke, Mass., reach a district of over twenty thousand inhabitants, while only Wheeling, Richmond and Holyoke sell over 100,000,000 feet, although Duluth sold 85,000,000.

Since these figures were compiled, however, by Brown's Directory, there has been some increase of sales in most of the companies.

The United States census for 1900 contains a bulletin on gas (No. 123) from which certain interesting computations have been made. The average sales of the 877 private companies covered by the report was 77,770,000 feet, and of the 15 municipal plants 32,330,000 feet. The cost, however, of the private plants was placed at \$3.58 per thousand feet of sales, and the capitalization, that is, the stocks, bonds and notes of the private plants were returned at \$8.45.

Although the public plants were only 42 per cent. as large in the matter of sales as the private plants, their average price was only 93 cents per thousand feet as compared with \$1.04 in the private plants.

The following table gives certain additional information computed from the census returns:

COST, ETC., PER 1,000 FEET OF SALES.

DESCRIPTION	PUBLIC PLANTS	PRIVATE PLANTS
	<i>Cents</i>	<i>Cents</i>
Net cost of material.....	21.23	24.33
Salaries.....	7.36	7.84
Wages.....	22.07	18.53
Miscellaneous expenses, such as legal claims, etc.	9.97	16.68
Total cost, save taxes.....	60.63	67.38
Taxes.....	2.44	5.33
Total cost and taxes.....	63.07	72.71
Price.....	93.00	103.50
Profits.....	29.93	30.79

Space forbids more than a passing reference to three or four plants.

Duluth, Minn., bought her gas and electric light plant at the beginning of 1899. At that time the price for lighting was \$1.90, and for fuel \$1.00, and the sales were only 20,000,000 feet. There was a deficit of \$5,683 the first year of city operation, 1899, after paying operation and interest charges. During 1903, however, although by successive reductions, the price for light had become \$1.00 as well as for fuel, and the sales had increased to 73,686,000 feet and the excess of receipts above operating expenses and interest was \$4,584.00. The sales have since increased so that in 1904 they were about 95,000,000 feet, while the price has fallen to 90 cents for light, and 75 cents for fuel. Depreciation is taken care of in the "repair and renewal account." The net cost at the works, owing to increase in the price of coal and oil, remained the same, in 1903, that it had been in 1899, to-wit, 47 cents, but because of the increased sales the distribution expenses fell from 24 cents to 14 cents per thousand feet, and the interest charges from 55 cents to 24 cents, so that the total cost fell from \$1.26 to 85 cents, and have gone still lower since 1903.

Some of the plants, like Henderson and Wheeling, having paid for their plants out of earnings in years past, do not attempt to earn interest on them, but furnish gas free for public uses and frequently for hospitals.

Danville, Va., is an admirably managed plant, which has a net profit of over 7 per cent. on the investment if we include the value of the gas used for public purposes, although the price is only \$1.00 and the plant is necessarily small.

The operating expenses and earnings in Richmond are only 52 cents per thousand feet of sales. The price is kept at \$1.00, and the remaining 48 cents is devoted to the furnishing of gas for public uses and to the payment of cash into the city treasury. Up to January 1, 1904, the plant had not only paid for the entire cost of the plant, but has given the city \$845,000 in cash and \$40,000 interest yearly since 1896 on the supposed value of the investment.

Holyoke, Mass., took possession of its gas and electric light plants December 15, 1902, after an expense and litigation under the Massachusetts law of about \$120,000, while the cost to the private company for litigation was about \$200,000. This law is apparently intended to render the acquisition of a private lighting plant as difficult and costly as possible. Nevertheless, the profits of the gas works have already been such as to warrant the reduction made last year from \$1.35 to \$1.20. In nearly every State where municipal gas works are found, the price is considerably less than the average price of the private plants of the same size in the same State and section. Some of these plants would show much better results if free from the spoils system, and if better sustained by the city councils. Others are very well situated in most respects, and in nearly every case there is no agitation for a return to private ownership.

THE NATIONALIZATION OF RAILROADS.

BY EX-GOVERNOR WM. LARRABEE.

The Shibboleth of the last century—Competition—is dying with that which gave it birth. It was supposed to be adequate to any condition of social action, but it has utterly failed in many respects to meet with expectations, and especially has it failed to secure reasonable management of railroads in the United States. Some other remedy must be found. There appear to be only two plainly in sight. One is strict government regulation, and the other is government ownership. If the former is not soon made efficient, the latter is inevitable. This is in opposition to our early training. The *laissez-faire* policy was believed to be the proper one, and so long as the country was new and sparsely settled, and fields abundant for the active and ambitious to exploit, there was little danger in pursuing it; but with a large and rapidly increasing population and the old fields of exploitation largely exhausted, new phases of social and industrial life make it more and more necessary for governmental interference to protect the freedom and rights of the individual, and in spite of our early training and our prejudices, changes are being forced upon us, and they cannot be resisted.

The whole history of civilization is strewn with creeds and institutions which were believed to be invaluable at first, but afterwards found to be inefficient and deadly. Formerly the post-office, the public school, ferries, toll-roads and bridges, telegraph, telephone, cabs, street cars, water, lights, and other public utilities were all private, but now are largely managed or controlled by government authority.

The railroad can no longer be considered as private property. It is a public road and the operation of it is a public business and it should be so treated. The charges allowed for the support of it is a tax levied upon nearly every article that is produced or consumed by the people. This tax is now levied at the command of less than a score of irresponsible persons, and they have unlimited and unrestricted power to increase it, and they use this power for their own benefit. It is taxation of all, for the benefit of the few. It is taxation without representation.

No other civilized or even half-civilized country permits such tremendous power of taxation to be exercised by a handful of irresponsible persons. Nearly all foreign countries have adopted government ownership or management of railroads to a greater or less extent. Their experience for many years has proved it to be entirely practicable, and upon the whole shows much better results than private management. The service is superior and equal to the public demand. The permanent way of the State road is kept in better condition, the public safety, convenience, and general advantage, being paramount considerations. Rates are stable and uniform, and all persons and places are as equal before the

railroad tax collector, as before any other law. Passenger fares are lower, many of them are the lowest in the world, and freight rates are lower than on roads managed by private companies. The State expends from 15 to 30 per cent. more for maintenance of the road, and the rank and file of the railroad employees, fare on an average better under government than they do under private management, and yet the financial reports show much better results from the government roads. This will be denied by those who are directly or indirectly interested in the present system, and by those who have but little knowledge of the subject, but no impartial person can travel on the State managed roads, and have full knowledge concerning them without coming to this same conclusion. As a rule the government roads do a large amount of gratuitous service for the State. Mails are carried free, troops and government stores are transported, and other service rendered, at nominal rates. Many millions of dollars are annually saved to the State in this way. Some will be shocked and think this statement wild, but it is entirely safe to say that if the government would purchase the railroads at their original cost to the stockholders, they could be maintained and operated by the government with a more efficient service than at present. at less than 50 per cent. of their present income. Hundreds of millions of dollars could be annually saved to the public, by dispensing with a horde of high-priced officials and their staffs, by abolishing traffic organizations and kindred associations, local offices, solicitors, advertising agents, political henchmen, the pass evil, commissions, attorney's fees, and by consolidating depots, and the use of shortest routes.

The property could be managed by honest, capable and conscientious men, at reasonable salaries, and their aim would always be to give the best service possible for the lowest price. Officials would no longer be selected and paid extraordinary salaries, on account of their ability to contrive ways and means to increase their receipts, by evading the law, and by enforcing the piratical rule of collecting what the traffic will bear.

Objections will be made that it is too great an undertaking, and that many strong reasons can be given against it, and that untried and difficult problems will be met with. Admit it, but are not the American people as capable as the people of other countries? Have they not shown that they are capable of solving every political and financial question yet presented to them?

Concerning the methods by which the transfer can be made to the government, it is unnecessary to give details of a plan, as they can be worked out when the time for it arrives. Congress has the right to regulate commerce between the States, and it could provide for an impartial commission to appraise and purchase the property. Much difference of opinion would exist as to the proper price to be paid for it. Mr. Poor, who is considered high authority, and has always been partial to railroad interests, some years ago estimated the cost at about \$30,000 per mile. Railroad building has since then been materially cheapened. Tens of thousands of miles have been built for less than \$10,000 per mile. This has been proved again and again before legal tribunals, by the testimony of competent engineers employed by the railroads. These same roads have been capitalized at \$40,000 to \$50,000 per mile. But taking Mr. Poor's estimate, the cost of 207,000 miles of road would be \$6,210,000,000. The holders of railroad securities would gladly exchange them for 3 per cent. United States bonds. These bonds would afford a safe and desirable investment that is much needed in this country. At present railroad stocks are largely held by speculators and stock gamblers, and no conservative investor will purchase them except at panic prices.

The amount paid last year to about 1,200,000 railroad employees was about 40 per cent. of the gross receipts. This would incur an expense of \$763,543,130. The interest charge would be \$186,300,000. Total expense of employees and interest \$949,843,130. Gross receipts for 1903, \$1,908,857,826. Leaving a

balance of \$959,014,696. to provide for betterments, sinking fund, reduction of rates, loss of taxes, and for contingencies.

Opponents will say that this railroad property is capitalized at \$14,862,111,-544. This is an increase of \$907,000,000 over that of the previous year, with an increased mileage of only 4,774 miles. The capitalization of the roads is no indication whatever of their cost or of their value. It could with as much propriety be fixed at fifty billions as at fifteen billions.

It is claimed because large amounts have been expended during recent years in betterments that this should be represented in the capitalization, but this money did not come out of the pockets of the stockholders generally, but out of the patrons of the roads.

Of course there will be strong opposition to the purchase of the railways by the government, as there always is to great undertakings. It will naturally be opposed by those who share directly or indirectly in the profits of the present methods, and especially by those who are engaged in manipulating the property for speculative purposes.

To secure the transfer of this property to the government in a proper manner, and at a reasonable cost will not be a small task, but that the United States government can command the necessary ability to accomplish this in a reasonable satisfactory manner, I have no doubt, and there is little doubt that it is only a question of time when it will be done.

Clermont, Iowa, November 28, 1904.

CO-OPERATION.

THE UNITED STATES.

Accurate statistics of coöperation for many countries, and, in particular, for the United States, it is impossible to give, owing mainly to the fact, that the word "coöperation" is used by various writers in different ways. Prof. Parsons, in the *Arena* for July and August, 1903, reports 8,500 distributive and productive coöperative societies in the United States. Mr. N. O. Nelson reported to the Industrial Alliance in 1902 only 558 coöperative societies. Prof. Parsons reports 3,800 coöperative insurance associations, 5,302 coöperative loan associations, 3,800 coöperative creameries with a production of \$80,000,000 per annum. (He estimates some 20,000 corporators in California and reports the Coöperative Southern California Fruit Exchange as doing a business in 1901 of \$9,000,000, or more than half the orange business of the State.) Coöperative life insurance exceeds \$7,000,000,000 on 5,500,000 lives. He finds thousands of coöperative irrigation companies and "some 1,000 coöperative farmers' telephone companies."

GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

The statistics for the United Kingdom are definite. According to the report of the 36th Coöperative Congress (1904), there were in the United Kingdom 146 productive, 1,481 distributive, 54 agriculture and dairy, and 20 other coöperative societies—1,701 in all, with 2,116,127 members, with a share capital of £27,017,278 and having sales, in 1903, of £89,216,223. They had reserve funds of £2,157,596; paid, in 1903, £3,540,562 in wages to 97,321 persons and £70,731 as bonus on salaries and wages. They gave, in 1903, £78,499 as educational grants and £45,649, charitable. Of these 1,701 societies 24 were in Ireland, besides the Irish Agricultural and dairy societies (see Report for Ireland, p. 237) and 302 belonged to the Scottish section.

For the following statistics we are indebted to the (English) *Reformers' Year Book*, the statement being based on the returns to the Congress of the International Coöperative Alliance held at Budapest, September, 1904.

Belgium.—The Federation of Socialist Coöperative Societies is a distinctive feature of the movement in Belgium, combining the functions of a wholesale society with that of a propagandist union. The retail sales of the societies forming its membership are £2,000,000 a year. 200 agricultural coöperative societies are given in an official report dated December 31, 1903. The 313 Raiffeisen credit banks made 2,439 advances to agricultural cultivators, and 440 to persons of other callings in 1903.

Denmark.—Here coöperative development has been mainly on the Rochdale system, and on the authority of M. P. Blem, the Chairman of the Danish Coöperative Committee, it can be said that there are now 1,000 societies with about 150,000 members, and a collective turnover of about two millions sterling. The Coöperative Wholesale Society of Copenhagen sells to 915 distributive stores. Coöperative creameries number 1,057, and the butter produced from milk delivered therefrom, during the last fiscal year, was valued at £8,400,000. The bulk of the agricultural exports from Denmark are of coöperative origin, the total production of the butter, bacon, and egg societies for export in 1903 being £11,414,000, while the total exports from the whole of the country were under £20,000,000.

Finland.—In June, 1904, there were 288 coöperative societies in Finland, of which 110 were dairy, 94 distributive, 51 credit, nine supply, and 24 miscellaneous. Their total trade last year was £660,000, and the distributive societies, which are on identical lines with those of Rochdale, are now forming a union.

France.—There were, at the end of 1903, 328 productive societies of which 123 were in Paris, 19 being among cab-drivers. Distributive societies numbered 1,880, of which only 64 have more than 1,000 members each, and only three have more than 10,000. Their sales only totalled £3,405,400; and the aggregate profits are unobtainable—in many cases no surpluses were made. Coöperative building societies number 56, many having received advances from the savings banks. Credit societies have risen from 873 in 1902 to 1,038 in 1903. Nearly one-half are on the Raiffeisen principle. 273 are in touch with the agricultural syndicates—coöperative societies existing merely for the common purchase of agricultural requirements.

Germany.—The total number of distributive coöperative societies in Germany is 1,915, with a membership of 1,023,644, and an annual trade of £12,500,000. There are many coöperative federations. The Raiffeisen Union claimed a total of 3,982 adhering banks two years ago; no later figures are obtainable.

Holland.—Great growth has taken place among the agricultural societies. At the beginning of 1904 there were 564 coöperative dairies, 206 for the purchase of fertilisers, 234 credit societies, and 23 for the sale of agricultural produce. General distributive societies numbered 102, and coöperative bakeries 63. The formation of six printing societies, and the same number of dress-making societies, indicated the emulation of English coöperators to some extent.

Italy.—Confusion exists between various sets of figures published with regard to coöperation in Italy, owing mainly to no general agreement having been come to as to classification. But the returns made by the International Alliance to the Congress, in September, are generally accurate. They show 2,500 societies, 948 of which are distributive stores, with an aggregate membership of 188,869; 471 productive societies; 396 credit societies; 175 societies for common labour, mainly finding employment with municipalities; 151 agricultural societies; 41 wine presses; 99 dairies; and the rest being classified as bakeries, societies for the construction of workmen's dwellings, and insurance societies. Their total capital is £3,136,000, and their aggregate trade £24,312,000.

Portugal.—Statistics are unobtainable with regard to Portugal, where coöperation finds expression in distribution, production, house building, and agricultural syndicates. The military coöperative society of Lisbon has 2,500 members and sales of £52,000. The largest workmen's society has sales of £8,000, and with its educational funds, etc., shows great affinity to English methods.

Russia.—In January, 1904, there were 926 retail coöperative societies in existence in Russia, but, unfortunately, no official detailed returns have been available since 1902, when 248 societies supplying information had 3,089 members and did a trade of £2,746,930. There is a wholesale union of coöperative societies at Moscow, which had a trade of about £30,000.

Servia.—In September, 1904, there were 416 agricultural banks, 40 distributive societies, a wholesale society, and about 100 friendly societies, having a membership of 40,000. Owing to a boycott on the part of all the commercial firms in the country, the coöperators of Belgrade were drawing most of their supplies from the coöperators of other countries.

Spain.—There are 140 coöperative societies in Spain, of which 100 are in a National Union. Their entire annual trade is £400,000. Most of these are distributive, but there are also coöperative brickmakers, upholsterers, shoe-makers, and cotton spinners.

Sweden and Norway.—In Sweden there are 436 coöperative creameries and 73 organizations in the Swedish Coöperative Union. Norway has 830 coöperative dairies.

Switzerland.—There are quite 4,000 coöperative societies in Switzerland, nearly half of which are "cheeseries," and societies connected with wine, honey, and pasturing cattle. At the end of 1903 distributive societies numbering 276 federated in a Union, based somewhat on the lines of the English Wholesale Society, which traded to the extent of £247,000. There is also a union of some distributive societies and agricultural supply societies now comprising 145 societies. Their collective membership is 109,414. Scattered throughout the little republic are two coöperative societies for supplying water to the community, others for providing electric light and power—all on coöperative lines.

PROFIT SHARING.

BY NICHOLAS P. GILMAN, AUTHOR OF "A DIVIDEND TO LABOR," ETC.

This is the name of the system under which the employee receives a share in the profits of a business, in addition to regular wages: these should be paid at the prevailing rate, whether fixed by trade-unions or otherwise. The object is to bring about a closer community of interest, and the expectation of the employer is that the workmen will respond to such a proposal by an increase in punctuality, economy, diligence, and care in their work that the employer's own share of the profits will not be materially, if at all, diminished. This expectation has been found to be justified in many cases where the system has had a full and fair trial. But the influence of the trade-unions has generally been exerted against profit-sharing, which, they consider, will tend to weaken, if not destroy, the interest of workmen in the unions. Largely on account of this jealous attitude of the unions, profit-sharing, which is approved by most economists as a sound system, has not made the advance in recent years which its advocates had hoped, and its future depends greatly upon the extent to which trade-unionism succeeds in its exclusive aims. Some three hundred firms in the United States, Great Britain, and France are practising the system to-day. Among the most conspicuous cases are the Maison Leclair, the Maison Baillet-Laire, and the Bon Marché in Paris; the South Metropolitan Gas Company in London; the Proctor and Gamble Soap Works at Cincinnati, and the Brown Mills at Tiverton, R. I. Sir George Linsey, the managing director of the London Gas Works, mentioned, holds that profit-sharing must go on to include ownership of stock by the employees and representation by them of the workman-director, as in these works. The U. S. Steel Corporation has recently renewed for 1905 its stock-purchasing plan of profit-sharing, which was subject to much criticism in 1904, because of the fall in the value of the stock. See for the fullest statements in English the two books by the writer named in the bibliography under "Employees and Employers."

ORGANIZED LABOR IN 1904.

BY J. W. SULLIVAN.

The increase of 210,400 in the dues-paying membership of the American Federation of Labor from October 1, 1903, to October 1, 1904, is evidence satisfactory to the unionist that he is yet on the side of the preponderating force in the struggle between the organized employers and the organized wage workers of this country. Of this fact he may be the more certain when he is informed by the Secretary of the Federation that in the two years 1903 and 1904 the increase was from 1,024,399 members to 1,676,200—an addition of more than 650,000. The receipts of the treasurer in 1904 were \$305,009, and his expenditures \$203,991. To the organizing account was appropriated \$83,242. The balance on October 1 was \$103,017. These financial totals for the Federation as a whole form merely a prototype of the totals for each international union in the organization, of which there were 120, consisting of 27,000 local unions. Some of the international unions collected and disbursed far larger amounts in the course of their administration than the Federation itself. The death benefits of the international unions reporting amounted to \$782,382, the sick benefits \$756,762, while more than \$200,000 was expended in benefits for the unemployed, for members travelling, etc., these figures not including the amounts paid out by the local unions for these and similar purposes, even an approximate computation of the totals not being possible with the imperfect data obtainable. That they form an enormous sum the inquirer may be certain when it is considered that one local union, Typographical No.

6 of New York, now expends nearly \$100,000 per annum in its various benefit features. The strike expenses of the international unions reporting was given by the secretary of the Federation as \$2,864,642, the number of members benefited by this outlay being 121,340. The figures for the local unions are not reported.

The salient features of the year 1904 in organized labor were the "open shop" campaign of the Citizens' Industrial Alliance and similar employers' organizations, the disturbances in Colorado, the jurisdictional disputes between certain international unions, the thrashing out of the "grafting" charges against union officials, and the prominence given systematic attempts to secure industrial peace through trade agreement, conference, conciliation and arbitration. More than the usual attention was paid schemes of coöperation, while the decisions of several courts on the eight-hour question and the postponement of action by Congress on the national eight-hour and anti-injunction bills caused the Federation at its annual convention in San Francisco to resolve to redouble its efforts in support of measures relating to these purposes. A new Chinese exclusion law, passed at the instance of the Federation, was approved in April.

The "open shop" advocates have apparently reached the limit of the damage to unionism possible to their destructive force while conditions in the labor market remain as they are. In the field of actual contest, the unions have been obliged to compromise a few of the larger labor disputes, with partial submission to the open shop, though unionists in general believe the concessions to be only temporary and more apparent than real. In the field of discussion, the unions have gained recognition that they are a social necessity. Even supporters of the open shop recognize the dire consequences, especially in the form of sweating and the socially injurious labor of women and children, in case of the disruption of labor organizations. The claim so frequently made that the President of the United States favors the open shop is not recognized by minds capable of discriminating between the public service and the private hiring of wage workers. The government obviously cannot tolerate strikes on the part of either its military or civil servants. Its employees, sworn to obey the orders of the public officials who are their superiors, can take no instructions to the contrary from trade unions or any other source. The President adopted the only course open to him in the controversy. His action carries no implication of his partisanship one way or the other in the domain of non-governmental industry.

The outcome in Colorado showed that the citizens of a State may be called on to bring to an end at the polls a strike or lock-out situation intolerable and otherwise difficult of solution.

At the San Francisco convention the Federation illustrated a means of putting an end to jurisdictional fights by amalgamating rival unions.

The wild charges of labor grafting, so rife early in the year and in 1903, are no longer heard. In New York, the two-years' drag-net investigation among the unions by the prosecutors of the law resulted in five convictions. In one of these cases sentence was suspended, in a second the prisoner was condemned to a three months' term, in a third the accused is on bail pending appeal. In these three cases mitigating circumstances or doubtful testimony were brought to light. In the two cases remaining, one convicted man served ten months, and the other, whose notorious misdeeds were persistently held up before the public as typical acts of labor leaders, died in confinement. No labor men are in prison in New York at present on charges of extortion. On the whole, the outcome of this phase of the attack on unionism was that no charges, to the writer's knowledge, were made in the courts against any labor leader except men in the building trades, and that what the employers in this industry termed blackmail was usually shown to be systems of fines imposed on strike-provoking subcontractors by the unions and not by the business agents. One result of

the building trades disputes was the publicity given combinations of employers and material dealers by which competitors were excluded from the market and the public made to pay consequently increased profits, practices more inimical to the welfare of the community than anything possible to labor organizations.

The coal miners voted the acceptance of a decrease of 5.55 per cent. in wages in all of their districts in which the scale expired on April 1, a significant step in conservatism and contradictory to the prophesies of their critics. The vote was 101,792½ against 68,485½, the average paid-up membership in the entire body being 251,006. The subway employees of New York obtained recognition through conference between the National Street Railway Union officers and the Company managers.

While the Supreme Court of the United States had in November, 1903, recognized the validity of a Kansas eight-hour law as binding on a municipal contractor, the New York Court of Appeals in November, 1904, decided that the New York eight-hour law was unconstitutional with respect to the work done by contractors. The New York prevailing rate of wages law was also held by the same court, in January, 1904, to be in part unconstitutional.

Cessation of the long-continued efforts to win the support of the Federation has been announced by Socialist writers since the San Francisco convention, where the Socialist delegates offered no organized resistance to the re-election of President Samuel Gompers, the champion of pure unionism as against partisan political action by the unions.

LIBERTY AND TRADE UNIONS.

BY SAMUEL GOMPERS, PRESIDENT OF THE AMERICAN FEDERATION OF LABOR.

In many cities employers, antagonistic to labor, have formed themselves into so-called citizens' alliances, and have undertaken to propagate the policy of the destruction of organized labor, their first effort being directed to what they are pleased to term the "open shop," and to attack the union shop under the false assertion that it is a "closed shop." Some have pretended that the entering into an agreement of an employer with a union by which exclusively union men are to be employed by him, is in violation of law; that it denies the right to employment of workmen who are not members of the unions. This position is taken under the specious name of "Liberty." But is it liberty? Can an individual workman be free? What is liberty? Is it some fanciful phrase with which to conjure, signifying nothing real or tangible? Was there ever in this world a people who, in their normal conditions, were hungry, and who at the same time enjoyed liberty?

Real liberty was never yet *conceded* to any people. Liberty comes from power, and conscious power, and that conscious power intelligently and humanely wielded.

The individual workmen in modern industrial affairs have no power, and are conscious of the lack of that power. No man can assert in our day that an individual workman in seeking employment from one of the great corporations enjoys the freedom of contract to determine the conditions upon which his labor shall be sold to the corporation. It is not an answer to say that he need not make the contract for the sale of his labor, that he may go elsewhere, for with present-day industrial methods and concentration of industry not only are nearly all the occupations under the control of few persons, but often they are under one direct management.

A man who must sell his labor upon such conditions as his employer may determine, can not by any form of reasoning be regarded as either free or enjoying liberty.

The association of workmen with workmen in industry instills courage and independence in the collective individuals. It places them upon a plane where they have an opportunity of determining the conditions upon which their labor may be disposed. In other words, it gives them the greater opportunity of freedom to contract to obtain better results for the only power which they possess, their power to labor. It brings to them shorter hours of daily toil, with more opportunity for rest and leisure and the cultivation and education of their higher and better natures. It gives them a larger return in the form of wages for the labor they perform, and thus affords them the better opportunities to satisfy their more intelligent, civilizing desires and aspirations. It raises the whole character and caliber of not only the wage earner himself, but of his wife and his children, and helps to give them the opportunity for education, improvement, and refinement which makes for a higher and better civilization.

No amount of sophistry, whether proclaimed centuries ago or repeated to-day, can convince the workmen of our time that the organizations of labor, which have secured so many advantages for the toilers, are a denial or abrogation of the liberty which the workers would otherwise enjoy. It is a misnomer and a travesty which the wives of the workmen readily recognize, to say that their husbands are denied their liberty because they have a well-established union of their trade when the home and the fireside are made brighter and better and the lives of themselves and their children happier by reason of the unions of labor.

And any workman can join a union. The union not only opens wide its doors, inviting all to join, but sends out its organizers and missionaries to induce, by every honorable means within their power, the non-unionists to share in the advantages that come from united and associated effort. But quite apart from this consideration is this fact, that an employer may give a contract to a dealer to furnish him with his raw material, or to erect a plant, or to furnish him with machines, the contractor to have the exclusive right to furnish and provide these things. Such a contract implies and provides the exclusion of all other dealers, builders, or machinery manufacturers. Is such a contract held to be improper or unlawful? Are not hundreds of thousands of contracts of this character made daily? The agreement between an employer and a union is for the members of the union to furnish that employer with labor of certain qualifications for a specific period of time, the consideration being the payment of stipulated wages as a minimum. That others are by their own short-sighted policy or indifference excluded from the provisions and benefits of such an agreement is their own fault and against which they have neither the legal nor the moral right to contend.

The organized labor movement is the associated effort or more than two million of adult wealth producers. It is the unselfish action of the most intelligent, and the earnest manifestation of the most enlightened self-interest which sees that interest best served by helping to protect and promote the interests of others.

The open-shop cant and hypocrisy aim at organized labor with the full knowledge that it, and it alone, stands between the toilers with those dependent upon them and the greed and avarice that would force down the conditions of labor to a bare subsistence, lengthen the hours of daily toil, and make the home wretched and desolate.

Freedom, as Heine puts it, is bread; bread is freedom, and without bread there is no such thing as freedom and liberty. The division and subdivision of labor and its specialization, brought about by inventions of machines and new tools of labor, have robbed workmen of their power of individual freedom of contract with their employers. Their only opportunity for anything like fair or advantageous terms under which to sell their labor is in associating themselves with their fellow workmen in making a collective bargain, a working agreement; in other words, a union and a contract by the union with employers for their labor and the conditions under which it shall be sold.

THE OPEN OR THE CLOSED SHOP.

BY GUSTAVUS A. WEBER, CHIEF STATISTICIAN, WASHINGTON, D. C.

In this article an attempt is made to present in a concise form the arguments most commonly advanced by trade unionists in justification of their demands for the closed or unionized shop, and, on the other hand, the reasons given by the advocates of the open shop why these demands should not be complied with. We have not stated our own views, but give a compilation of the views of others.

THE CLOSED SHOP.

"The philosophy of the closed shop is based upon the belief that the welfare of the laboring classes is bound up with the device of collective bargaining, that the success of the expedient depends upon its universal application, and that no individual workman can be conceded rights that are inconsistent with the welfare of his class."

Advantages of Trades-unionism.—Without attempting a thorough discussion of this subject, we present the following summary of the advantages of the trades-unions as cited in recent discussions of the closed shop.

The labor movement implies an orderly effort, not only to wrest concessions from the employer, but also to secure recognition from society. It is a movement which seeks to change the present standards by which the laborer's share in production is decided, and disputes the right of the employer alone to determine what fair treatment should be. It aims at industrial democracy and is in harmony with the world-wide tendency of the times.

The great consideration is to permit workmen to have a voice in the shop—to have some control over the conditions of employment.

The trades-unions have achieved the gradual and steady increase of wages and the shortening of the working day.

Trades-unions are coming to be recognized by employers as a permanent part of the industrial offer. In many trades in Great Britain the employers prefer to make terms with the trades-unions which shall apply to non-union workmen as well, rather than to make terms with each class separately. It is coming to be recognized as good policy to deal with the same form of organization and more and more to make that organization responsible, so far as may be, for meeting the obligations that are assumed by it for the workers in the trade it represents.

A well organized union enables an employer easily to obtain efficient workmen; to make collective contracts, which are more satisfactory, cover a longer term, and are more readily fulfilled than individual contracts; and it tends toward conservatism, and thus lessens the liability of strikes.

To seek to destroy unions because of their defects would be like attempting to abolish government because of its abuses. The unions with all their faults represent a forward stride of the human race. They cultivate a spirit of self-reliance and mutual assistance which ought to more than compensate for their faults.

As the unions become stronger and gain in experience, they tend to conservatism. The hard and stern conditions confronting them can be relied upon to keep them within bounds.

Union and Non-union Employees.—The reasons why union men refuse to work in the same shop with non-union men, and which are at the root of the contention for the closed shop may be summarized as follows:

A shop with union and non-union men is like a house divided against itself. There is a constant attempt to organize it entirely; an incessant struggle to disorganize it completely.

While accepting the union scale of wages when work is plentiful, the non-unionist will immediately lower wages as soon as work becomes more difficult to obtain.

It is easy to speak of the open shop in which the employer does not care whether his men are union men or not. But the union cannot accomplish its most important object unless the employer deals with it as a union. The employer cannot be made to enter into a collective bargain—and without the collective bargain the conditions of labor are hardly fixed by bargaining at all—unless the union comprises practically all the men he wishes to employ.

Non-union Workers.—Much attention is given, in the arguments of trade unionists, to the character of the men who do not join the unions, with the view of showing that much sympathy is misplaced when bestowed upon these workers who, as alleged, are deprived of their liberty to contract for employment.

Some refuse to join because of intolerable conditions existing in a union. It is maintained, however, that when such conditions exist, the abuses should be prevented by action within rather than without, or against the organization.

Another reason given for not joining unions is because of strong but mistaken ideals of persons who believe in individual action, in the right of every man to do as he will, no matter how it may affect his neighbor. This policy, it is maintained, is not practicable in a civilized community.

Another class of non-union workers, it is maintained, consists of persons who, purely through selfish motives, seek to share all the advantages secured by the sacrifices of the trades-unionists without bearing any of the burdens or incurring any of the risks.

Lastly, there is said to be a class of professional strike-breakers. These, it is claimed, are either dishonorably discharged unionists or they belong to the class of criminals, idlers, and incompetents who are only willing to work or to make a pretense of working in order to defeat the ends of honest workmen.

The Legal Right.—It is contended by trades-unionists, that in their action for securing the closed shop they are doing nothing but what is lawful.

As free citizens the wage-earners have the right to work or to refuse to work, to make certain demands for their welfare, and to strike if the demands are not granted. An employee has the right to say that he will sell his labor on condition that he is not to work with obnoxious persons. In like manner, laborers can combine to sell their labor collectively and on the same terms. They do not deny the right of employment to non-unionists, but simply refuse to work with them.

The union workmen who refuse to work with non-unionists do not say in so many words that the employer shall not engage non-union workmen. The dictum of the trades-union is not equivalent to an act of Congress or of a State legislature prohibiting employers from engaging non-union men. What the unionists in such cases do is merely to stipulate as a condition that they shall not be obliged to work with men who, as non-unionists, are obnoxious, just as they shall not be obliged to work in a dangerous or unsanitary factory, for unduly long hours, or at insufficient wages.

The Moral Right.—The trade unionists claim that they are not only legally but also morally justified in refusing to work with non-union men.

Society makes right that which will accomplish the most good for its members as a body.

If it is wrong to ostracize or to refuse to associate with craftsmen who are indifferent to their common welfare, then it is equally wrong for professional men to shun others of their calling accused of unprofessional conduct, and it is wrong for merchants to taboo other tradesmen who disregard the ethics of their business.

In modern industry workingmen do not act as individuals contracting with employers. The workingman of to-day belongs to a group, and whether he will or not, acts with his group and is treated like others of his group. He works the time worked by the others, receives the wages paid the others of his class, and obeys the regulations made for his group. His employer does not know that he exists, but simply knows that so many hundreds or so many thousands

of men of his type are employed at a given wage, for a given number of hours, and under certain given conditions. What affects one of his class affects all.

Just as the individual owes a duty to society, so also, though in a less degree, he owes a duty to his class. The non-unionist has no moral right to seek his own temporary advantage at the expense of the permanent interests of all workmen.

If the union has a right to exist, which is no longer denied, it has a right to insist on those conditions which are necessary to its existence; and it cannot exist if non-union men are permitted to take the jobs of union men.

THE OPEN SHOP.

The arguments in favor of the open shop are based upon the necessity of preserving the freedom of individual contracts.

Right of Individual Contract.—In a recent decision of the Superior Court of Cook County, Illinois, it was held that agreements for the closed shop "would, if executed, tend to create a monopoly in favor of the members of the different unions, to the exclusion of workmen not members of such unions, and are, in this respect, unlawful."

The law of morality and the law of man forbid any citizen, whether he be laborer or capitalist, to enforce his demands by the oppression of others, by a denial to any man of his right to work for whom he will, and for what he will, of his right to hire any man for what that man is willing to accept.

The freedom of action is legally, and, it is probable, economically a matter of as much concern to society as the freedom of the unionist to combine for proper purposes.

Unless we are prepared to relegate all the laborers in a trade to a condition or status determined by a combination or association known as a trade union, and to deny the advisability of permitting a worker to choose freely between an individual or a collective contract, we must insist that the compulsory unionization of industry is economically indefensible.

The conditions under which a man shall dispose of his labor are of such exceeding importance to society that, if freedom is to be denied, the restrictions imposed should be determined by the government and not by any other agency. Such regulations should be just, uniform, and certain; they should not be subject to the possible caprice, selfishness or special exigencies of a labor organization. When it is necessary to restrict the freedom of labor or capital to enter any industry, the matter becomes the subject of public concern and public regulation. If membership in a labor organization is to be a condition precedent to the right of securing employment, it will be necessary for the government to control the constitution, policy and management of such association so far as may be requisite for the purpose in view.

Trade unions have no right to usurp the sovereignty of the State and to destroy that individual freedom which is the cardinal principle of American life, whether it be religious, political or industrial.

If unions are to render permanent service to the laborers, they must be voluntary organizations. If any device can be invented by employers of laborers by which laborers can be coerced into joining or kept from joining labor unions, then these organizations no longer represent either the best thought or the best interests of the laborers. They must necessarily soon degenerate into mere dictatorial groups. There is no principle of ethics, economics or equity that will make the coercion of laborers by laborers any better than the coercion of laborers by capitalists.

Men, who, as victims of trade-union despotism, are forced into the union, would prove elements of weakness and prepare the way for disintegration.

Danger of Trade-Union Power.—An important argument against acceding to the demands of trade-unionists for the closed shop is the danger involved in granting too much power to the labor organizations.

It is contended that it would be highly dangerous to allow a permanent and all-inclusive organization of laborers to control such matters as admission to a trade, the introduction of improved machinery and the rate of wages; that it is highly desirable that a trades-union should always be kept upon its good behavior by the knowledge that an unreasonable or selfish policy will drive both employers and the public to seek relief by appealing to the non-union man.

Injury to Business.—"It is claimed that the open shop is necessary in order to preserve the liberty and protect the rights of employers. The closed shop means that none but union men shall be employed; that the foreman shall be acceptable to the union and, therefore, presumably a member of it; that the rules of the workshop shall be made by the unions; and it is claimed that all this practically takes the management of the business out of the hands of the employers and places it with those who lack business responsibility. The men who have put their capital into the business can no longer control their own property, but are practically compelled to turn it over to the management of an organization which deems its own interests in conflict with those of the capitalists.

The closed shop would, it is claimed, be injurious to business and thus disastrous to the general welfare of society;

By imposing on a shop where there is no dissatisfaction, the liability of a sympathetic strike, or of a strike growing out of a quarrel with some other union;

By taking the management out of the hands of the employers who have the greatest stake in the business, and thus inviting failure;

By destroying all competition between good and poor workmen, and thus lowering the standard of skill and resulting in an inferior product;

By destroying all competition between union and non-union men and enabling the unions to force wages up to a point which the business could not stand; and, with a higher price for a poorer product, a closed shop could not compete with establishments not so handicapped."

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I believe that under modern industrial conditions it is often necessary, and even where not necessary it is yet often wise, that there should be organization of labor in order better to secure the rights of the individual wage worker.

All encouragement should be given to any such organization, so long as it is conducted with a due and decent regard for the rights of others. There are in this country some labor unions which have habitually, and other labor unions which have often, been among the most effective agents in working for good citizenship and for uplifting the condition of those whose welfare should be closest to our hearts.

But when any labor union seeks its proper ends, or seeks to achieve proper ends by improper means, all good citizens, and more especially all honorable public servants, must oppose the wrongdoing as resolutely as they would oppose the wrongdoing of any great corporation.—Theodore Roosevelt, Message, 1904.

PROGRESS OF SOCIALISM IN THE WORLD IN 1904.

BY ALGERNON LEE, EDITOR OF "THE WORKER," NEW YORK CITY.

The most important event in the world history of Socialism in the year 1904 was the International Congress held at Amsterdam in August, at which after an exhaustive discussion, a resolution was adopted emphatically repudiating the "revisionist" or compromising tendencies advocated by some leaders. As a result of this Congress, the unification of the Socialists of France on a basis of Marxian principle and of strict class-struggle tactics seems now (February, 1905,) to be assured.

Next to the Amsterdam Congress, the greatest interest undoubtedly centres upon the movement in Russia. The exchange of fraternal greetings between the Social Democrats of Russia and of Japan, while the governments representing the propertied classes of the two countries are sending the masses out to slaughter each other for their masters' profit, produced a profound impression. The Social Democratic party of Russia has pursued its work of educating and organizing the wage-workers with great effect, as shown by the unparalleled uprisings at St. Petersburg, Riga, Moscow, Warsaw, Lodz, and other cities in January and February, 1905. Simultaneously the Socialist party of Japan, publicly protesting against the war of conquest and against domestic misgovernment, brought down upon itself the ire of the government. The Socialist paper, "Heimin Shimbun," was suppressed and several of the more active Socialist speakers and writers sent to prison.

In the opinion of all Socialists, the world over, the year 1904 has been a most fruitful one for their cause.

SOCIALIST VOTE OF THE WORLD.

Germany (1903).....	3,008,000
France (1902).....	863,159
Austria (1900).....	600,000
Belgium (1900).....	463,000
Italy (1900).....	170,841
Switzerland (1901).....	100,000
Sweden (1902).....	48,000
Denmark (1902).....	55,479
Holland (1901).....	39,000
¹ England estimated between 300,000 and 400,000.	
Spain (1901).....	25,400
Bulgaria (1900).....	10,000
Norway (1903).....	24,799
Canada (1903).....	8,025
Argentine Republic (1902).....	3,000
Servia (1895).....	25,000
Total.....	5,843,703
United States.....	408,230
The World.....	6,251,933

This does not include Australia which, under various party names, has adopted more Socialism than any other country.

¹The socialists have never participated independently in a sufficient number of districts in Great Britain at any general election to supply any accurate figures. The purely socialist vote, however, is generally estimated to be between three hundred and four hundred thousand.

SOCIALIST VOTE IN THE UNITED STATES, 1900 AND 1904.

TABULATED BY W. J. GHENT, NEW YORK CITY.

STATES	1900	1904	STATES	1900	1904
Alabama.....	928	853	New Jersey.....	4,609	9,587
Arkansas.....	27	1,816	New York.....	12,869	36,883
California.....	7,572	29,533	North Carolina.....		124
Colorado.....	714	4,304	North Dakota.....	518	2,017
Connecticut.....	1,029	4,543	Ohio.....	4,847	36,260
Delaware.....	57	146	Oregon.....	1,495	7,651
Florida.....	603	2,337	Pennsylvania.....	4,831	21,863
Georgia.....		197	Rhode Island.....		956
Idaho.....		4,954	South Carolina.....		22
Illinois.....	9,687	69,225	Tennessee.....	410	1,354
Indiana.....	2,374	12,013	Texas.....	1,846	2,791
Iowa.....	2,742	14,847	Utah.....	717	5,767
Kansas.....	1,605	15,494	Vermont.....	371	844
Kentucky.....	770	3,602	Virginia.....	145	218
Louisiana.....		995	Washington.....	2,006	10,023
Maine.....	878	2,106	West Virginia.....	268	1,572
Maryland.....	908	2,247	Wisconsin.....	7,095	28,220
Massachusetts.....	9,716	13,604	Wyoming.....		1,077
Michigan.....	2,826	8,941	Totals, States.....	96,146	402,321
Minnesota.....	3,065	11,692	Arizona.....		1,304
Mississippi.....		393	New Mexico.....		162
Missouri.....	6,128	13,009	Oklahoma.....	815	4,443
Montana.....	708	5,676	Totals, United States.....	96,961	408,230
Nebraska.....	823	7,412			
Nevada.....		925			
New Hampshire.....	790	1,090			

1 There are two parties in the United States professing the principles of socialism. One calls itself where it can do so legally, the "Socialist" party, but in New York and Wisconsin it is obliged, under the law, to take the name "Social Democratic" party. The other branch, the older, is known as the "Socialist Labor" party. It is much smaller and appears to be in rapid process of absorption by the "Socialist" party. The two organizations, while bitterly hostile in methods, differing largely in their attitude to trade unions, the Socialist Labor antagonizing trade unions, while the Socialists work in them, are identical in fundamentals and aims, hence where both have had candidates in the field the vote for the two has been combined in the tables here given, since the purpose is to show the growth and present status of the movement as a whole. The vote for presidential years, unless otherwise stated, is for presidential electors; in other years for the principal candidate on the State ticket. The figures are based upon the election returns as given in *The World Almanac*.

EVEN YEARS	OFF YEARS
1888- 2 States.....	2,808
1892- 5 States.....	21,164
1894- 4 States.....	19,564
1896- 20 States.....	36,274
1898-19 States.....	83,519
1900-32 States.....	126,445
1904-47 States.....	408,230
1895- 5 States.....	28,738
1897- 8 States.....	39,311
1899- 7 States.....	26,755
1899- 7 States.....	59,501
1903- 8 States.....	131,928

The Socialists allege extensive frauds in Alabama, Colorado, Texas, and South Carolina, robbing them, in the aggregate, of several thousand votes.

In percentage of gain for the four years (leaving out of count States in which the party polled less than 500 votes in 1900), Kansas leads, with a gain of 865 per cent.; Nebraska follows, with 800 per cent.; Utah, with 704 per cent.; Montana, 701 per cent.; Ohio, 648 per cent.; Illinois, 614 per cent.

In proportion of the Socialist vote to the vote of all parties, California leads, the Socialists polling 8.91 per cent. of the total vote; Montana follows, with 8.8 per cent.; Oregon, with 8.48 per cent.; Nevada, 7.89 per cent.; Washington, 6.9 per cent.; Idaho, 6.82 per cent.

SOCIALISTS ELECTED.

The campaign ending on November 8, 1904, resulted not only in more than quadrupling the Socialist vote of 1900, but also in placing five Socialists in the Wisconsin Legislature and two in the Legislature of Illinois. In Wisconsin the party elected one State Senator, Jacob Rummell, a union cigarmaker, and five Assemblymen: W. J. Alldridge, a union machinist; August Stretton, a union painter; Edward J. Berner, a union cigarmaker; and F. J. Brockhausen, also a union cigarmaker. In Illinois, two Socialists were elected to the Assembly: J. A. Ambroz, a union machinist, and Andrew A. Olson, a union laborer.

In the spring of 1904 the Socialist party elected nine aldermen in Milwaukee, besides several others in various cities of Massachusetts, Michigan, Iowa, Minnesota, and other States.

PLATFORM OF THE SOCIALIST PARTY, 1904.

I.—The Socialist party, in convention assembled, makes appeal to the American people as its the defender and preserver of the idea of liberty and self-government, in which the nation was born; as the only political movement standing for the programme and principles by which the liberty of the individual may become a fact; as the only political organization that is democratic, and that has for its purpose the democratizing of the whole of society.

To this idea of liberty the Republican and Democratic parties are equally false. They alike struggle for power to maintain and profit by an industrial system which can be preserved only by the complete overthrow of such liberties as we already have, and by the still further enslavement and degradation of labor.

Our American institutions came into the world in the name of freedom. They have been seized upon by the capitalist class as the means of rooting out the idea of freedom from among the people. Our State and National Legislatures have become the mere agencies of great protected interests. These interests control the appointments and decisions of the judges of our courts. They have come into what is practically a private ownership of all the functions and forces of government. They are using these to betray and conquer foreign and weaker peoples, in order to establish new markets for the surplus goods which the people make, but are too poor to buy. They are gradually so invading and restricting the right of suffrage as to take away unawares the right of the worker to a vote or voice in public affairs. By enacting new and misinterpreting old laws, they are preparing to attack the liberty of the individual even to speak or think for himself, or for the common good.

By controlling all the sources of social revenue, the possessing class is able to silence what might be the voice of protest against the passing of liberty and the coming of tyranny. It completely controls the university and public school, the pulpit and the press, and the arts and literatures. By making these economically dependent upon itself, it has brought all the forms of public teaching into servile submission to its own interest.

Our political institutions are also being used as the destroyers of that individual property upon which all liberty and opportunity depend. The promise of economic independence to each man was one of the faiths upon which our institutions were founded. But under the guise of defending private property, capitalism is using our political institutions to make it impossible for the vast majority of human beings ever to become possessors of private property in the means of life.

Capitalism is the enemy and destroyer of essential private property. Its development is through the legalized confiscation of all that the labor of the working class produces, above its subsistence-wage. The private ownership of the means of employment grounds society in an economic slavery which renders intellectual and political tyranny inevitable.

Socialism comes so to organize industry and society that every individual shall be secure in that private property in the means of life upon which his liberty of being, thought and action depend. It comes to rescue the people from the fast increasing and successful assault of capitalism upon the liberty of the individual.

II.—As an American socialist party, we pledge our fidelity to the principles of international socialism, as embodied in the united thought and action of the socialists of all nations. In the industrial development already accomplished, the interests of the world's workers are separated by no national boundaries. The condition of the most exploited and oppressed workers, in the most remote places of the earth, inevitably tends to drag down all the workers of the world to the same level. The tendency of the competitive wage system is to make labor's lowest condition the measure or rule of its universal condition. Industry and finance are no longer national but international, in both organization and results. The chief significance of national boundaries, and of the so-called patriotisms which the ruling class of each nation is seeking to revive, is the power which these give to capitalism to keep the workers of the world from uniting, and to throw them against each other in the struggles of contending capitalist interests for the control of the yet unexploited markets of the world or the remaining sources of profit.

The socialist movement, therefore, is a world-movement. It knows of no conflicts of interests between the workers of one nation and the workers of another. It stands for the freedom of the workers of all nations; and, in so standing, it makes for the full freedom of all humanity.

III.—The socialist movement owes its birth and growth to that economic development or world-process which is rapidly separating a working or producing class from a possessing or capitalist class. The class that produces nothing possesses labor's fruits, and the opportunities and enjoyments these fruits afford, while the class that does the world's real work has increasing economic uncertainty, and physical and intellectual misery, for its portion.

The fact that these two classes have not yet become fully conscious of their distinction from each other, the fact that the lines of division and interests may not yet be clearly drawn does not change the fact of the class conflict.

This class struggle is due to the private ownership of the means of employment, or the tools of production. Whenever and wherever man owned his-own land and tools, and by them produced only the things which he used, economic independence was possible. But production, or the making of goods, has long ceased to be individual. The labor of scores, or even thousands, enters into almost every article produced. Production is now social or collective. Practically everything is made or done by many men—sometimes separated by seas or continents—working together for the same end. But this coöperation in production is not for the direct use of the things made by the workers who make them, but for the profit of the owners of the tools and means of production; and to this is due the present division of society into two classes; and from it have sprung all the miseries, inharmonies and contradictions of our civilization.

Between these two classes there can be no possible compromise or identity of interests, any more than there can be peace in the midst of war, or light in the midst of darkness. A society based upon this class division carries in itself the seeds of its own destruction. Such a society is founded in fundamental injustice. There can be no possible basis for social peace, for individual freedom, for mental and moral harmony, except in the conscious and complete triumph of the working class as the only class that has the right or power to be.

IV.—The socialist programme is not a theory imposed upon society for its acceptance or rejection. It is but the interpretation of what is, sooner or later, inevitable. Capitalism is already struggling to its destruction. It is no longer competent to organize or administer the work of the world, or even to preserve itself. The captains of industry are appalled at their own inability to control or direct the rapidly socializing forces of industry. The so-called trust is but a sign and form of the developing socialization of the world's work. The universal increase of the uncertainty of employment, the universal capitalist determination to break down the unity of labor in the trades unions, the widespread apprehensions of impending change, reveal that the institutions of capitalist society are passing under the power of inhering forces that will soon destroy them.

Into the midst of the strain and crisis of civilization the socialist movement comes as the only conservative force. If the world is to be saved from chaos, from universal disorder and misery, it must be by the union of the workers of all nations in the socialist movement. The Socialist party comes with the only proposition or programme for intelligently and deliberately organizing the nation for the common good of all its citizens. It is the first time that the mind of man has ever been directed toward the conscious organization of society.

Socialism means that all those things upon which the people in common depend shall be the people in common be owned and administered. It means that the tools of employment shall belong to their creators and users; that all production shall be for the direct use of the producers; that the making of goods for profit shall come to an end; that we shall all be workers together; and that all opportunities shall be open and equal to all men.

V.—To the end that the workers may seize every possible advantage that may strengthen them to gain complete control of the powers of government, and thereby the sooner establish the co-operative commonwealth, the Socialist party pledges itself to watch and work, in both the economic and the political struggle, for each successive immediate interest of the working class; for shortened days of labor and increase of wages; for the insurance of the workers against accident, sickness and lack of employment; for pensions for aged and exhausted workers; for the public ownership of the means of transportation, communication and exchange; for the graduated taxation of incomes, inheritances, franchises and land values, the proceeds to be applied to the public employment and improvement of the condition of the workers; for the complete education of children and their freedom from the workshop; for the prevention of the use of the military against labor in the settlement of strikes; for the free administration of justice; for popular government, including initiative, referendum, proportional representation, equal suffrage of men and women, municipal home rule, and the recall of officers by their constituents; and for every gain or advantage for the workers that may be wrested from the capitalist system, and that they may relieve the suffering and strengthen the hands of labor. We lay upon every man elected to any executive or legislative office the first duty of striving to procure whatever is for the workers' most immediate interest, and for whatever will lessen the economic and political powers of the capitalist and increase the like powers of the worker.

But, in so doing, we are using these remedial measures as means to the one great end of the co-operative commonwealth. Such measures of relief as we may be able to force from capitalism are but a preparation of the workers to seize the whole powers of government, in order that they may thereby lay hold of the whole system of industry, and thus come into their rightful inheritance.

To this end we pledge ourselves, as the party of the working class, to use all political power, as fast as it shall be intrusted to us by our fellow-workers, both for their immediate interests and for their ultimate and complete emancipation. To this end we appeal to all the workers of America, and to all who will lend their lives to the service of the workers in their struggle to gain their own, and to all who will nobly and disinterestedly give their days and energies unto the workers' cause, to cast in their lot and faith with the Socialist party. Our appeal for the trust and suffrages of our fellow-workers is at once an appeal for their common good and freedom, and for the freedom and blossoming of our common humanity. In pledging ourselves, and those we represent, to be faithful to the appeal which we make, we believe that we are but preparing the soil of that economic freedom from which will spring the freedom of the whole man.

CHRISTIAN SOCIALISM.

BY THE REV. LEIGHTON WILLIAMS, NEW YORK CITY.

The term "Christian Socialism" was at first applied to a group of men in England headed by Maurice, Kingsley and others, who sought to emphasize the connection which they believed to exist between the ideals of socialism and those of Christianity. The term is still used in essentially the same way. The Christian socialist to-day accepts the main principles of the socialist programme, while insisting that they are not new and that they form part of the original content of the early Christian ideal. Christian socialism is not at the present time represented in this country by any one permanent organization, but is rather manifesting itself as a spirit and tendency which is very wildly disseminating itself in all branches of the Christian Church.

Thus understood Christian socialism does not offer any definite programme such as that of the social democrats, but represents rather the standpoint of an increasing number of men in the Christian Church who are convinced that the social tendencies of our day are to be viewed entirely as congenial to the Christian faith, if not distinctly a part of it, and whose attitude is therefore conciliatory toward all social movements. There are an increasing number of men prominent in the various branches of the Christian Church, whose writings express this sentiment. Among these may be mentioned Dr. Josiah Strong, Dr. Washington Gladden, and Mr. John Graham Brooks in this country; M. Wilfred Monad and M. Elie Gounelle in France, Father Hans Faber, the Reformed theologian of Zurich, whose book entitled "Christianity of the Future" has attracted wide attention, and in England Mr. W. T. Stead and Mr. Richard Heath, whose recently published book entitled "The Captive City of God or The Church Seen in the Light of the Democratic Ideal," is the most impassioned appeal to the Church if it would save the world and preserve its own existence, to place itself determinedly in open alliance with the social movement.

In addition to the important individual contributions thus making for Christian socialism, should be mentioned also the work of various societies more or less distinctly on the Christian social basis. In the French Protestant Church this spirit is represented by the so-called Messianist movement. In England, there is the League of the Kingdom. In this country, perhaps the oldest of such movements still in existence is the Brotherhood of the Kingdom, founded in 1892, and holding an annual conference for the discussion of religious and social questions, in the month of August each year.

The present situation may best be summarized perhaps as follows. This Christian Socialist movement no longer appears as an organized party with a definite programme, but is now manifest chiefly as a leaven working both in the Church and in the State, and affecting business as well as politics more and more widely. While therefore apparently waning, the movement is in reality rapidly extending itself and infiltrating into all departments of modern life and thought.

For recent tracts on Christian Socialism address The Collectivist Society, P. O. Box 1663, New York City.

BEQUESTS AND GIFTS.

According to records kept and published by various papers, particularly *The Chicago Tribune* and *The World Almanac*, the large benefactions of 1904, not including those of less than \$5,000, or other property, amounted to over \$88,000,000,

Bequests and Gifts for		
1901.....	\$107,000,000	
1902.....	94,000,000	
" " " "	77,000,000	
1904.....	88,000,000	
" " " "	1893-1904.....	696,000,000

THE YEAR'S PROGRESS IN EDUCATION.

BY PROF. EDWIN G. DEXTER, UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS.

So tremendous a thing is our educational organization that it is impossible to bring its statistical record wholly down to date. Although the National Bureau of Education, our principal source of information, works with all possible expedition, the records for the year 1903 are the latest available, and they only through the advance sheets of the report, kindly furnished by the commissioner. The tables used in connection with this statement are largely from that source.

COMMON SCHOOLS.

UNITED STATES.	Totals 1902	1903	Change
(1) Whole number of pupils enrolled.....	15,925,887	15,925,887	
(1) Whole number of pupils enrolled.....	15,009,		
(1) Whole number of pupils enrolled.....	15,925,887	16,009,361	+ 83,474
(2) Percentage of total population enrolled.....	20.28	20.04	-.22%
(3) Percentage of school population (5-18 years) enrolled.....	71.54	70.67	+.87%
(4) Length of school year, in days.....	145	147.2	+2.2
(5) Average number of days attended by each pupil.....	100.1	101.7	+ 1.6
(6) Number of teachers.....	439,596	449,287	+ 9,691
(7) Percentage of Male teachers.....	27.8	26.	- 1.8
(8) Average monthly salary of male teachers.....	\$49.45	\$49.98	+ \$0.53
(9) Average monthly salary of female teachers.....	\$39.77	\$40.51	+ \$0.74
(10) Total number of school buildings.....	254,076	256,789	+ 2,713
(11) Total value of public school property.....	\$601,571,307	6\$43,903,228	+ 42,331,921
(12) Total amount expended for schools in the year.....	235,208,465	251,457,625	+ 16,249,160
(13) Expenditure per capita of population.....	2.99	3.15	+ .16
(14) Expenditure per capita of school attendance.....	21.38	22.75	+ 1.37

From the table it will be seen that there has been a substantial increase during the year in enrollment, in the number of teachers, and in the money devoted both to the actual work of carrying on the schools and in that invested in school properties. Yet the percentages both of the total population attending school and of that part of it which is of school age have decreased slightly. The percentage of male teachers has also decreased. That our schools are, however, being increasingly generously supported is shown in various ways. The salaries of teachers have arisen somewhat, though they are not yet what they should be, and the expenditure, both per capita of the population and of school attendance, has materially increased.

STATE SCHOOL SYSTEMS.

Although more or less important school legislation has been passed during the year 1904, in two, New York and Ohio, sufficiently radical changes have been made to warrant extended statements. In the former State, the educational affairs have been administered by a Board of Regents, first appointed in 1784, and a State Department of Public Instruction, anticipated by the appointment of the State Superintendent (the first in the country) in 1812. The exact province of these two institutions was never determined, and clashes of authority were not infrequent. Upon March 8, 1904, the following law (given in part) abolished the office of State Superintendent and centralized the authority of both the former bodies in a Commissioner of Education.

"On and after the first day of April, 1904, the corporation designated by the Constitution at "the University of the State of New York" shall be governed and its corporate powers exercised by 11 Regents. The term of office of the Regents now in office, and selected as herein provided, shall cease and determine on said first day of April following the election of the 11 Regents hereinafter provided for. There shall be no "ex-officio" members of the Board of Regents.

Within ten days after the passage of this act, the Legislature shall proceed to the election of 11 Regents of the University of the State of New York, in the manner now prescribed by law

for the election of a Regent. Such Regents shall be elected for the term of 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, and 11 years respectively from the first day of April, 1904.

Within 10 days after the passage of this act, the Legislature shall elect a Commissioner of Education in the same manner as members of the Board of Regents are now elected, who either may or may not be a resident of the State of New York.

The Commissioner of Education first elected shall serve for the term of six years, unless sooner removed for cause by the Board of Regents, and the Legislature shall fill any vacancy that may occur during such period of six years for the balance of the term, in the manner provided by section 3 of this act, and all successors in office after such term of six years, shall serve during the pleasure of the Board of Regents, and all vacancies in the office of Commissioner of Education after such six years shall be filled by appointment by the Board of Regents.

The office of Superintendent of Public Instruction and the office of Secretary of the Board of Regents shall be abolished from and after April 1, 1904, and the powers and duties of said offices shall be exercised and performed by the Commissioner of Education. All the powers and duties of the Board of Regents in relation to the supervision of elementary and secondary schools, including all schools, except colleges, technical and professional schools, are hereby devolved upon the Commissioner of Education. The said Commissioner of Education shall also act as the executive officer of the Board of Regents. He shall have power to create such departments as in his judgment shall be necessary.

Andrew S. Draper, President of the University of Illinois, was elected first Commissioner of Education for a term of six years, and began his work on April 1, 1904.

In Ohio, the legislation has not been in the direction of general organization, but of detail in administration. The new code makes the school term uniformly thirty-two weeks; every school trustee or school board member in every city, borough, and township is to go out of office at the close of 1904, and men and women newly elected are to take their places; every teacher's certificate to teach will go out of commission on September 1, 1905; every superintendent in the State, whatever his contract, must come up for re-election by the new board. All teachers' examinations will henceforth be conducted by the State Department of Education instead of by county examiners. In cities of more than 50,000 population a portion of the members must be elected on a general ticket, and the rest by subdistricts, the present school board determining the number. Cleveland will have 5 at large and 2 by districts; Cincinnati 3 at large and 24 by districts; Toledo, 3 to 2; Columbus, 3 to 12; Dayton, 2 to 18. Of the other 66 cities of 5,000 and upward, Delaware, Wooster, and Zanesville will have a board of 3, while 12 will have 5, 33 will have 6, and 18 will have 7. An interesting provision in the bill is the absolute denial to any city or town of the right to allow the superintendent to appoint and remove teachers without the formal approval of the school board.

The whole bill emphasizes State control, and is a very radical piece of educational legislation.—From Editorial in *School Review*.

CITY SCHOOL SYSTEMS.

The following table from the advance sheets of the commissioner's report shows the growth of our urban school systems:

	1901-2	1902-3	Increase	Per cent of increase
Number of city school systems	580	587	7	1.20
Enrollment	4,174,812	4,274,071	99,259	2.38
Aggregate number of days' attendance	5,414,991	609,200,167	17,480,722	2.95
Average daily attendance	1,431,945	3,252,257	92,816	2.94
Average length of the school term, in days	1,873	187.3	0	0
Enrollment in private and parochial schools	877,210	968,002	90,792	10.35
Male supervising officers	2,492	2,663	171	6.86
Female supervising officers	2,533	2,716	183	7.22
Whole number of supervising officers	5,025	5,379	354	7.04
Number of male teachers	6,969	7,280	311	4.46
Number of female teachers	83,775	86,856	3,081	3.68
Whole number of teachers	90,774	94,136	3,392	3.74
Number of buildings	9,512	9,583	341	3.58
Number of seats	3,938,001	4,095,447	157,446	4.00
Value of school property	\$356,986,076	\$380,437,679	\$23,451,603	6.57
Expenditure for tuition	\$66,561,505	\$70,252,274	\$3,690,769	5.39
Total expenditure	\$111,159,665	\$122,353,007	\$11,193,342	10.07

Several important changes have taken place during the year 1904 in City Superintendencies. Superintendent Seaver has resigned in Boston after twenty-three years of service. Aaron Gove, the only superintendent Denver, Colorado, has ever had, has been succeeded by S. C. Greenlee. Carroll G. Pearce has gone from Omaha, Nebraska, to Milwaukee, Wisconsin, and has been succeeded in his former position by W. M. Davidson. Thomas M. Balliett has left the superintendency at Springfield to take up the Deanship of the School of Pedagogy at New York University. Wilbur F. Gordy of Hartford, Connecticut, takes the position which he left. Francis Coggswell, for fifty years associated with the schools at Cambridge, Massachusetts, has retired from service, and death has taken superintendents Griffith of Utica, New York, and Goodenough of Paterson, New Jersey. It has also taken Horace S. Tarbell, for so many years superintendent at Providence, Rhode Island, though not of late in active service.

SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

The total number of pupils doing work of a secondary grade, *i.e.*, the four years preceding the college work, was 776,635. They were distributed as follows (Rep. U. S. Com., 1903):

INSTITUTIONS	Male	Female	Total
Public high schools	245,771	346,442	592,213
Public normal schools	1,672	4,372	6,044
Public universities and colleges	7,552	2,063	10,155
Private high schools	50,434	51,413	101,847
Private normal schools	4,683	3,268	7,951
Private universities and colleges	29,749	13,890	43,639
Private colleges for women		5,809	5,809
Manual training schools	4,037	4,940	8,977
Total	343,898	432,737	776,635

There was a gain of 41,875 in the enrollment of secondary students over the preceding year. The gain in public high schools was 41,062; in the preparatory departments of public colleges, 937; in private colleges, 2,524; in private normal schools, 834; in colleges for women, 104. The decrease in secondary enrollment in private high schools was 2,843; in public normal schools, 251; in private manual training schools, 1,032. The net increase in secondary enrollment was nearly 6 per cent. The percentage of increase in the number of public secondary students was 7.47, while the percentage of decrease in the number of private secondary students was 0.24.

COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES.

	U. S. TOTALS		
	1902	1903	Change
(1) Number of colleges for men and both sexes	464	455	9
(2) Number of colleges for women	131	129	-2
(3) Students in colleges for men	24,560	24,955	+395
(4) Students in colleges for both sexes	59,021	63,154	+4,133
(5) Students in colleges for women	24,963	25,485	+ 522
(6) Value of buildings and grounds in class 1	\$154,529,288	\$160,915,710	+6,386,422
(7) Value of buildings and grounds in class 2	\$16,990,359	\$20,011,262	+3,021,903

Nearly all the institutions included in this chapter offer courses of study in the liberal arts, or what may be called general culture courses. The range of instruction offered by the several institutions is being extended year by year by the additional new courses of study, so that the instruction now offered by some of the institutions is very varied. This is true in the line of general culture studies, but is especially the case in technical lines. Thus it is found that of the institutions of college rank, courses of study in agriculture are offered by 58, architecture, 19; civil engineering, 102; chemical engineering, 27; electrical engineering, 88; irrigation engineering, 2; mechanical engineering, 87; metallurgical engineering, 10; mining engineering, 46; marine engineering, 4; sanitary engineering, 11; naval architecture, 6; forestry, 7; horticulture, 11; textile engineering, 5; railway engineering, 6; ceramics, 4.

From all the institutions of this class 12,141 degrees were conferred upon men and 5,487 upon women during the year. Three hundred and twenty-six of these were doctorates, of which 22 were honorary. One million seven hundred and fifty thousand five hundred and one dollars were received as gifts or bequests. During the year 1904 a number of important changes in the administrative and teaching forces of our colleges and universities have taken place. Edmund J. James has gone from the Presidency of Northwestern University to that of the University of Illinois; Charles W. Dabney from the University of Tennessee to the University of Cincinnati; Edwin A. Aldeman from Tulane University to the University of Virginia; W. G. Sperry, at Olivet College, has been succeeded by E. G. Lancaster; Dean W. E. Huntington has accepted the Presidency of Boston University, and Fred W. Atkinson that of Brooklyn Polytechnic Institute. Among the important changes upon the teaching force, John Dewey has gone from the University of Chicago and George Stuart Fullerton from the University of Pennsylvania both to the Department of Philosophy at Columbia University. Frank Thilly, University of Missouri, has gone to the same department at Princeton, to succeed J. Mark Baldwin, who enters the faculty at Johns Hopkins.

PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION.

The Commissioner of Education gives the following figures for professional schools.

CLASS	Schools	Instruct- ors	Students	Increase (+) or decrease (-)	Gradu- ated in 1903	Per cent ated	Students having literary degree *
Theological.	153	1,031	7,372	+ 29	1,545	21	2,094
Law.	99	1,158	14,057	+145	3,432	24	2,429
Medical.	146	4,928	27,062	+241	5,611	21	2,081
Dental.	54	1,164	8,298	-122	2,182	26	203
Pharmaceutical.	61	595	4,411	- 16	1,372	31	95
Veterinary.	11	168	671	+ 95	137	20	21

In value of buildings and grounds there was a decrease of about \$300,000 during the year; in endowment of, roughly, \$1,000,000, and in benefaction of \$300,000. As is shown by the table, however, the student body has increased for all classes of schools except the dental and pharmaceutical.

NORMAL SCHOOLS.

The number of students pursuing teachers' training courses in the several classes of institutions for the year 1902-1903 was 88,033. This was a decrease of 6,143 from the number reported for the preceding year, although there was an increase of 23 in the number of institutions reporting. In all public institutions there were 58,837 normal students, 49,175 of these being in public normal

schools. In all private institutions there were 29,166 normal students, 14,939 of these being in private normal schools. Private universities and colleges alone show an increase in the enrollment of normal students over the preceding year. The following table shows the number and classes of institutions offering professional instruction to teachers and the number of normal students in each class for the last four years.

CLASSES OR INSTITUTIONS	1899-1900		1900-1901		1901-1902		1902-1903	
	Institutions	Students	Institutions	Students	Institutions	Students	Institutions	Students
Public normal schools.	172	47,421	170	43,372	173	49,403	177	49,175
Private normal schools.	134	22,172	118	20,030	109	15,665	109	14,939
Public universities and colleges.	26	2,004	34	3,019	39	3,003	37	2,997
Private universities and colleges.	221	7,520	213	7,453	195	7,687	204	8,340
Public high schools.	506	10,703	528	11,298	368	10,483	458	6,665
Private high schools.	417	8,522	398	8,985	357	7,892	279	5,887
Grand total.	1,476	98,342	1,461	94,157	1,241	94,133	1,264	88,003
In all public institutions.	704	60,128	732	57,689	580	62,889	672	58,837
In all private institutions.	772	38,214	729	36,468	661	31,244	592	29,166

COMMERCIAL AND BUSINESS SCHOOLS.

During the scholastic year 1902-1903 there were enrolled in 5,387 different schools, 243,521 students in business or commercial studies, as shown by reports from individual institutions. Of this number, 137,979 were in 516 regular commercial and business schools, and 79,207 in 3,673 public high schools. The distribution of business students by sex among the five different classes of institutions giving business instruction is shown in the following summary for the past two years:

CLASSES OF INSTITUTIONS	1901-1902				1902-1903			Total
	Number of schools	Male	Female	Total	Number of schools	Male	Female	
Universities and colleges.	177	7,085	2,122	9,207	170	6,168	2,011	
Public and private normal schools.	51	682	383	1,065	50	1,434	1,267	
Private high schools and academies.	956	10,094	6,290	16,384	978	9,462	5,993	
Public high schools.	3,213	35,762	41,032	76,794	3,763	36,320	42,887	
Commercial and business schools.	520	81,903	55,903	137,247	516	79,175	58,804	
Total.	4,917	134,967	105,730	240,697	5,387	132,559	110,962	

In the grand total there was an increase of 2,824 students. The commercial and business schools had an increase of 732, public high schools, 2,413, and normal schools, 1,636, while the number of business students decreased 1,028 in universities and colleges and 929 in private high schools and academies.

MANUAL AND INDUSTRIAL TRAINING.

For the scholastic year 1902-1903, the Bureau of Education collected statistics from 186 manual and industrial training schools. These include the 95 of high school grade mentioned above, 48 of elementary grade, and 43 industrial schools for Indians. Four of the Indian schools had some students of high school grade. These 186 schools had 56,432 pupils in manual and industrial training, 22,672 in elementary grades, and 33,760 in secondary or high school grades. Of these in secondary grades, 9,180 were not receiving literary

instruction, but were regarded as students of high school grade before admission. The actual number receiving literary instruction of secondary school grade in these 186 schools was 24,580. It may be noted, also, that of the elementary pupils in industrial training, 1,076 were not receiving literary instruction. The actual number receiving such instruction of elementary grade was 21,596. The 186 schools had 1,354 teachers of elementary and secondary studies and 2,321 instructors in manual and industrial training.

An event of the year 1904 of no little importance to our country educationally, though one of the full results of which only time will show, was the Louisiana Purchase Exposition held at St. Louis during the months from April to November inclusive. Never before were educational exhibits planned on so large a scale nor have they been so admirably planned to show the working of the world's educational machinery. The meeting of the National Educational Association, held upon the exposition grounds served to emphasize their value to a large number of teachers.

The International Congress of Arts and Sciences which was also held at St. Louis was a tremendous factor educationally, bringing together, as it did, the world's leaders in thought.

On the whole, the year has been one of substantial progress educationally, and one prophetic of greater things in the future.

EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA—PROGRESS IN TWENTY-FIVE YEARS.

PREPARED BY THE U. S BUREAU OF EDUCATION.

	1877	1902
Total population, estimated.....	46,112,700	78,544,816
School population (5 to 18 years), estimated.....	14,025,800	22,216,863
<i>Public schools</i>		
Enrollment of pupils.....	8,965,006	15,925,887
Average daily attendance.....	5,426,595	10,999,273
Teachers:		
Male.....	114,312	122,392
Female.....	152,738	317,204
Total.....	267,050	439,596
Value of school property.....	\$198,554,584	\$601,571,307
Expenditure for instruction.....	\$54,973,776	\$150,013,734
Total expenditure.....	\$79,439,826	\$235,208,465
Average number of days in school year.....	133.4	145
<i>High schools</i>		
Institutions.....	1,340	8,127
Teachers.....	6,759	32,318
Students.....	98,485	655,301
<i>Normal schools</i>		
Institutions.....	152	282
Teachers.....	1,189	3,277
Students.....	27,765	65,068
<i>Universities and colleges</i>		
Institutions.....	433	520
Professors and instructors.....	4,865	17,898
Students.....	66,737	161,075
<i>Schools of medicine, law and theology</i>		
Institutions.....	249	404
Professors and instructors.....	1,799	7,218
Students.....	16,422	48,076

ELEMENTARY EDUCATION IN VARIOUS COUNTRIES.

FROM REPORT OF COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION FOR 1902.

COUNTRIES.	Enrolled in elementary schools. ¹	Per cent. of population
United States.	16,479,177	21.6
Canada.	458,606 ²	21.0 ²
Victoria.	243,667	20.3
Switzerland.	665,394	20.0
Queensland.	96,891	19.5
England and Wales.	5,881,278	18.0
Scotland.	767,421	17.1
New Zealand.	131,351	17.0
Ireland.	754,028	16.9
Germany.	9,256,731	16.5
Norway.	335,865	15.0
Netherlands.	754,993	14.3
France.	5,530,232	14.1
Austria-Hungary.	6,255,242	14.0
Sweden.	707,067	13.7
Denmark.	307,633	12.5
Belgium.	793,915	11.8
Japan.	4,683,598	10.7
Italy.	2,493,120	7.7
Spain.	1,356,136	7.3
Greece.	164,450	6.8
Russia.	4,203,246	3.3

¹Most of the figures are for 1892 or thereabouts.

²Ontario only.

RELIGIONS OF THE WORLD.

The following tables are based, for countries in which a religious census exists, on such information, from the *Statesman's Year Book* for 1904. For countries in which no such census exists they are taken from the *Blue Book of Missions*, for 1905. Funk & Wagnalls publishers, prepared by Dr. H. O. Dwight from the latest official estimates, or most careful returns from mission fields. For the United States, France and in a few other instances, they are from special sources as indicated in the notes. It is believed, therefore, that these figures represent the latest returns and most reliable estimates yet made. As, however, for large spaces of the earth only the roughest estimates exist, there is room for wide divergence in such estimates. Figures in round numbers indicate the estimates; exact figures, as in Europe, indicate a census. It must be remembered, too, that these figures are for adherents and not communicants:

CONTINENTS	Protestants	Roman Catholics	Eastern Churches	Jews	Mohammedans	Various
Africa.	2,665,000	2,493,000	3,799,000	381,000	48,753,000	90,578,000
North America.	71,630,000	35,085,000	85,000	1,058,000	15,000	3,069,000
South America ²	357,000	35,871,000		21,000	10,000	1,654,000
Asia.	1,506,000	5,250,000	11,803,000	303,000	134,378,000	715,805,000
Europe.	98,494,000	175,033,000 ¹	100,171,000	8,665,000	7,822,000	5,084,000
Oceania ³	3,286,000	8,059,000	1,000	20,000	20,613,000	17,901,000
The World.	177,938,000	261,791,000	115,859,000	10,448,000	211,591,000	834,091,000

¹ Greek or Orthodox, Armenian, Nestorian, Abyssinian, Coptic, Jacobite, etc. ² Includes West Indies. ³ All the Pacific Islands, including the Dutch East Indies, but not Japan and Formosa.

SOCIAL PROGRESS

Dr. Fournier de Flaix, in the *Quarterly* of the American Statistical Association for March, 1902, gives the following estimates of the Eastern churches: Abyssinian, 3,000,000; Coptic, 120,000; Armenian, 1,690,000; Nestorian, 80,000; Jacobite, 70,000; which, according to the above, would leave 110,899,000 for the Greek or Orthodox church.

The *Blue Book* of missions gives the following figures:

Buddhists	137,935,000	Shintoists	24,900,000
Hindus	209,659,000	Animists	157,697,500
Confucianists or Taoists	291,816,000	Unclassed	15,352,000

RELIGIOUS STATISTICS OF COUNTRIES.

(For authorities see preceding page.)

COUNTRIES	Protes- tants	Roman Catholics	Eastern Churches	Jews	Mohamme- dans	Others
AFRICA:						
Abyssinia		2,000	3,098,000	60,000	50,000	290,000
Cape Colony	1,118,000	23,000		4,000	21,000	1,267,000
Natal	72,000	21,000			14,000	818,000
Other British	834,000	281,000	1,000	12,500	12,182,500	21,436,000
Egypt	27,000	26,000	647,000	25,000	8,979,000	
Egyptian Soudan		2,000	3,000	2,000	1,693,000	300,000
French Possessions	472,500	758,000	26,000	117,000	17,667,000	15,808,500
German Possessions	47,500	21,500			812,000	12,166,000
Italian Possessions	1,000	17,000	12,000	500	450,000	369,500
Liberia	65,000					1,995,000
Morocco	1,000	5,000	3,000	150,000	4,840,000	
Portugese Possessions	11,000	1,270,000			270,000	6,697,000
Spanish Possessions	1,000	14,000			199,000	60,000
Turkish Possessions		6,000	9,000	10,000	275,000	
Congo Free State	15,000	17,000			600,000	29,370,000
Total, Africa	2,665,000	2,493,500	3,799,000	381,000	48,752,500	90,578,000
NORTH AMERICA:						
Canada	3,083,000	2,230,000				59,000
Central America	20,000	5,000,000				172,000
Danish Colonies	90,000	31,000				
Mexico	40,000	13,381,000		9,000		115,000
Newfoundland	44,000	76,000				
United States	67,223,000	11,887,000	85,000	41,044,000	15,000	836,000
West Indies	1,030,000	2,480,000		5,000		2,387,000
Total, America, N	71,630,000	35,085,000	85,000	1,058,000	15,000	3,069,000
SOUTH AMERICA:						
Argentina	50,000	4,660,000		17,000		67,000
Bolivia	3,000	1,700,000				113,000
Brazil	144,000	14,180,000		2,000		8,000
Guiana	125,000	82,000		1,000	10,000	181,000
Chile	7,000	3,044,000				
Colombia	500	3,664,500				
Ecuador	1,000	1,200,000				3,000
Paraguay	500	500,000				135,500
Peru	5,000	3,687,000		500		917,500
Uruguay	13,000	930,000				16,000
Venezuela	8,000	2,223,000		500		213,500
Total, America, S.	357,000	35,870,500		21,000	10,000	1,654,500

COUNTRIES.	Protes- tants	Roman Catholics	Eastern Churches	Jews	Mohamme- dans	Others
ASIA:						
Afghanistan.....					4,000,000	
British India.....	1,078,000	1,595,000	250,000	18,000	62,458,000	166,500,000
Ceylon.....	75,000	283,000			248,000	2,959,000
Other British.....	3,000	20,000			870,000	64,046,000
China.....	150,000	900,000		20,000	33,000,000	387,894,000
French Possessions.....		1,140,000			66,000	17,301,000
Japan.....	58,000	65,000	27,000			47,414,000
Korea.....	35,000	32,000	1,000			11,932,000
Nepal.....						4,000,000
Persia.....	8,000	14,000	60,000	35,000	9,373,000	10,000
Portugese Possessions.....		100,000			150,000	660,000
Russia (Asia).....	20,000	477,000	7,256,000	30,000	10,847,000	4,067,000
Siam.....	15,000					4,985,000
Tibet.....		1,000			100,000	4,000,000
Turkey (Asia).....	64,000	623,000	4,209,000	200,000	13,266,000	37,000
Total Asia.....	1,506,000	5,250,000	11,803,000	303,000	134,378,000	715,805,000
EUROPE:						
Austria.....	500,000	23,809,000	608,000	1,225,000		8,708
Hungary.....	3,798,652	11,777,056	2,815,713	851,378		11,760
Belgium.....	10,000	6,679,548		4,000		
⁷ Bulgaria.....	4,524	27,004	3,034,636	33,717	643,253	1,166
Denmark.....	2,436,084	5,373	106	3,476		19,731
⁸ France.....	580,000	35,387,000		49,000		2,945,995
Germany.....	35,441,254	20,321,441		586,948		17,535
Greece.....	2,000	15,000	2,380,000	6,000	25,000	5,800
Italy.....	65,000	32,836,247		40,000		20,000
Luxemburg.....	2,269	232,838		1,201		235
Monaco.....		15,180				
Montenegro.....		12,924	201,067		13,840	169
Netherlands.....	3,320,931	1,790,161		103,988		132,102
Norway.....	2,237,063	1,969				1,000
Portugal.....	500	5,421,632				1,000
Rumania.....	68,276	100,000	5,415,341	269,015	43,740	16,228
Russia (Europe).....	6,035,000	10,903,000	80,128,000	5,159,000	3,082,000	1,000,136
San Marino.....		11,002				
Servia.....	1,002	10,411	2,281,118	5,102	14,414	181,723
Spain.....	7,000	18,575,174		500		25,000
Sweden.....	5,193,414	1,390	46	3,402		500
Switzerland.....	1,916,157	1,379,664		12,264		7,358
Turkey.....	30,000	208,000	3,307,000	145,000	4,000,000	633,540
England and Wales.....	31,425,000	1,530,000		150,000		27,643
Scotland.....	4,124,000	410,000		6,000		10,000
Ireland.....	1,160,000	3,360,000		4,000		5,000
Islands.....	136,000	212,000		6,000		12,000
United Kingdom.....	36,845,000	5,512,000		166,000		54,653
Total Europe.....	98,494,126	175,033,012	100,171,027	8,664,991	7,822,247	5,084,289
OCEANIA:						
Australasia.....	2,641,000	964,000	1,000	17,000	3,000	150,000
Other British.....	157,000	68,000			340,000	1,408,000
Dutch Possessions.....	380,000	50,000		1,000	20,000,000	15,569,000
French Possessions.....	10,000	16,000				54,000
German Possessions.....	71,000	21,000				369,000
U. S. Possessions.....	27,000	6,940,000		2,000	270,000	351,000
Total Oceania.....	3,286,000	8,059,700	1,000	20,000	20,613,000	17,901,000

¹ Including Alaska and Hawaii, not Porto Rico or the Philippines. ² Dr. H. K. Carroll, Christian Advocate, January 5, 1905. ³ Dr. Carrol, Armenians, Greeks, Syrians. ⁴ Statesman's Year Book, 1904. ⁵ Blue Book of Missions. ⁶ Census, 1900, Chinese, Japanese, and untaxed Indians. ⁷ Almanac de Gotha, 1904. ⁸ Fournier de Fleix, 1892.

DENOMINATIONAL AVERAGES IN THE UNITED STATES.

DENOMINATIONS.	Membership per Church.		No. of Additions on Con- fession per Church.		Contributions to Benevolences per Church.		Contributions to Home Expenses per Church.		Benevolences per Capita.		Home Expenses per Capita.					
	1894	1903	1894	1903	1894	1903	1894	1903	1894	1903	1894	1903				
Baptist (Regular).....	91.7	96.5	98.6	5.1	5.1	\$119.98	\$58.38	\$64.64	\$209.49	\$277.68	\$283.66	\$1.30	\$1.30	\$2.28	\$2.87	\$2.88
Congregational.....	107.2	112.8	112.7	6.6	5.0	458.87	369.99	358.68	1,337.91	1,374.72	1,365.84	4.27	3.27	3.18	12.47	12.11
Methodist Episcopal.....	102.4	104.5	105.2	11.0	7.2	83.09	100.31	108.22	584.96	619.86	636.41	.81	.96	1.03	5.71	5.93
Presbyterian.....	123.4	137.0	138.0	10.2	8.3	509.27	596.13	582.96	1,461.29	1,691.77	1,645.20	4.12	4.35	4.22	11.84	12.34
Protestant Episcopal.....	101.9	114.7	118.8	7.4	5.6	609.58	488.39	477.25	1,780.52	1,953.28	1,869.96	3.71	2.80	2.75	10.84	11.21
Reformed ²	165.9	177.2	176.5	10.5	8.5	53.14	74.65	74.52	235.50	358.85	381.88	1.02	1.19	1.17	4.48	5.72
United Brethren.....	52.5	62.6	63.8	8.5	7.2	372.68	543.3	592.62	1,294.25	1,439.60	1,460.03	3.21	4.20	4.63	11.14	11.13
United Presbyterian.....	116.1	129.3	128.1	8.5	7.2											

¹The data for this and the following table were taken directly from the latest denominational year-books and minutes of conferences. Only a few of the year-books afforded the necessary data.

²As the Collegiate churches report no home expenses their benevolences have not been taken into account in the tables. Including the Collegiate churches, the denominational statistics are as follows: The average benevolence per church in 1894, \$674.82; in 1904, \$605.34.

CERTAIN RELIGIOUS DENOMINATIONS IN THE UNITED STATES.

PERCENTAGE OF LICENSE OF INCREASE OR DECREASE IN 10 YEARS.¹

DENOMINATIONS.	Membership, ²		Number of Churches.		Benevo- lences, ³		Home Expenses.		Benevo- lences Per Capita.		Home Expenses Per Capita.		Percentage of Churches not Reporting Additions on Confession of Faith.		Number of Churches not Reporting Additions on Confession of Faith.	
	Per cent. of Increase.	Per cent. of Decrease.	Per cent. of Increase.	Per cent. of Decrease.	Per cent. of Increase.	Per cent. of Decrease.	Per cent. of Increase.	Per cent. of Decrease.	Per cent. of Increase.	Per cent. of Decrease.	Per cent. of Increase.	Per cent. of Decrease.	1904.	1894.	1904.	1894.
Baptist (Regular).....	28.9	19.9	19.9	35.4	62.4	35.4	62.4	26.0	0.03	32.4	39.6	1.700	1.700	2,306	2,306	
Congregational.....	16.8	11.2	11.2	13.0	23.0	13.0	23.0	5.9	7.5	5.9	7.5	5.0	5.0	2,046	2,046	
Methodist Episcopal.....	16.1	13.0	13.0	27.8	25.6	27.8	25.6	0.7	24.0	24.0	25.5	1,704	1,704	2,024	2,024	
Presbyterian.....	24.8	11.7	11.7	14.2	15.0	14.2	15.0	32.6	0.6	17.1	19.4	101	101	125	125	
Protestant Episcopal.....	34.6	15.4	15.4	14.2	19.2	14.2	19.2	2.2	22.2	22.2	22.6	199	199	214	214	
Reformed ⁴	16.5	9.5	9.5	4.6												
United Brethren.....	16.0	5.7	5.7													
United Presbyterian.....	16.6															

(For notes see opposite page.)

The church as a whole is not successful unless the average church succeeds.

The progress of the average church in each of the several denominations, whose year books afford the necessary data for a test, does not present much occasion for congratulation, whether we compare the statistics for 1904 with those of the preceding year or with those of 1894. Taking all religious organizations in the United States together, the net gain of the average church last year was less than three members. The best index of spiritual life that we have is the percentage of additions on confession of faith. Of the eight denominations which furnish the necessary statistics of such additions, the Presbyterian shows the largest increase for 1904, viz, 6.2 per cent., and the Congregational the smallest, viz., 4.4 per cent. With the exception of a single denomination [Baptist], the number of additions on confession to the average church of the denomination was smaller in 1904 than in 1894.

Comparing the percentage of increase of these eight denominations with that of the population during the past ten years, we find that the membership of the Protestant Episcopal, the Presbyterian and the Baptist denominations has increased faster than the population, while that of the Congregational, Methodist Episcopal, Reformed, United Brethren and United Presbyterian has not kept pace with it.

The number of churches which did not report a single addition on confession of faith last year is surprisingly large. There were 2,024 Presbyterian churches, 2,046 Methodist Episcopal, and 2,306 Congregational churches in this category. Judged by this standard, 25.5 per cent. of the Presbyterian churches, 7.5 per cent. of the Methodist Episcopal, and 39.6 per cent. of the Congregational were barren. The statistics of only five denominations afford data for comparison on this point, and each one of the five shows a larger percentage of barren churches in 1904 than in 1894.

If we turn to the contributions of the churches, we find the facts no more creditable. The average church in each of the seven denominations reporting increased its home expenditures during the past ten years, while the average church of only four of those denominations increased its benevolences; and only one of these, the United Presbyterian, kept pace with the increase of wealth in the United States. The average Baptist church increased its home expenditure \$74.07, and reduced its benevolences \$55.34. The average Congregational church increased its home expenditures \$27.93 and reduced its benevolences \$100.19. The average Reformed church increased its home expenditures \$89.44, and decreased its benevolences \$125.33, while the wealth of the average citizen increased nearly 45 per cent.

If the eight denominations whose statistics have been analyzed and interpreted are fairly representative of all, it would seem that the churches of the United States are less vital and less benevolent now than they were ten years ago.

¹See note to preceding table.

²The increase of the denominations should be compared with that of the population which in ten years was 21.8 per cent. (estimated).

³The increase of benevolences should be compared with the increase of the nation's wealth in ten years which was 44.99 per cent. (estimated).

⁴As the Collegiate churches report no home expenses their benevolences have not been taken into account in the tables. Including the Collegiate churches, the denominational statistics are as follows: decrease in benevolences in ten years, 1.8 per cent.; decrease per capita, 18.1 per cent.

CATHOLIC STATISTICS.

A NOTE BY DR. H. K. CARROLL. (See next page.)

"It should be understood that the figures standing for Catholic communicants are not the result of an actual count, as in most Protestant denominations.

"The figures for most of the dioceses are in round numbers, an indication of inexactness. The archdiocese of New York leads with 1,200,000 'population;' for that of Chicago an even 1,000,000 is claimed; Boston is credited with 700,000; Philadelphia with 475,000; New Orleans with 450,000; the diocese of Brooklyn with 500,000; and Pittsburg and Cleveland with 300,000 each. The grand total of 'population,' as estimated for the year 1903, was 11,887,317. If the Catholic population is increasing at such a wonderful rate the problem of providing the people with priests and churches would seem to be a pressing one; and yet the actual increase in priests in 1903 was only 346, and in houses of worship but 188.

RELIGIOUS DENOMINATIONS IN THE UNITED STATES.

PREPARED BY DR. H. K. CARROLL FOR "THE CHRISTIAN ADVOCATE," JAN., 1905.

TABLE I.

DENOMINATIONS	STATISTICS OF THE CHURCHES IN 1904. IN THE UNITED STATES ONLY			GAINS OF THE CHURCHES IN 1904 IN THE UNITED STATES ONLY		
	Ministers	Churches	Communi- cants	Ministers	Churches	Communi- cants
Adventists:						
1. Evangelical.....	34	30	1,147			
2. Advent Christians.....	912	610	26,500			
3. Seventh-Day.....	471	1,632	57,452	34	47	2,962
4. Church of God.....	19	29	647			
5. Life and Advent Union.....	60	28	3,800			
6. Churches of God in Jesus Christ.....	94	95	2,872			
Total Adventists.....	1,590	2,424	92,418	34	47	2,942
Baptists:						
1. Regular (North) ¹	7,691	9,090	1,070,206	78	76	19,000
2. Regular (South) ¹	12,759	20,631	1,850,889	100	200	45,000
3. Regular (Colored) ¹	10,637	15,484	1,929,139	100	100	20,000
4. Six-Principle.....	8	12	858			30
5. Seventh Day.....	110	97	8,839			
6. Freewill.....	1,275	1,543	86,322	d85	d24	d1,870
7. Original Freewill.....	120	167	12,000			
8. General.....	465	515	25,769	d19	92	994
9. Separate.....	113	103	6,479			
10. United.....	25	204	13,209			
11. Baptist Church of Christ.....	80	152	8,254			
12. Primitive.....	2,130	3,530	126,000			
13. Old Two-Seed-in-the-Spirit Pre- destinarian.....	300	473	12,851			
Total Baptists.....	35,713	52,001	5,150,815	176	469	85,040
Brethren (River):						
1. Brethren in Christ.....	124	75	2,866			
2. Old Order, or Yorker.....	7	8	214			
3. United Zion's Children.....	20	25	525			
Total River Brethren.....	151	108	3,605			
Brethren (Plymouth):						
1. Brethren I.....		109	2,289			
2. Brethren II.....		88	2,419			
3. Brethren III.....		86	1,235			
4. Brethren IV.....		31	718			
Total Plymouth Brethren.....		314	6,661			
Catholics:						
1. Roman Catholic ¹	13,413	11,293	10,104,219	99	226	241,955
2. Polish Catholic.....	33	43	42,850			
3. Russian Orthodox.....	40	31	40,000			
4. Greek Orthodox.....	8	9	21,230			
5. Syrian Orthodox.....	3	4	15,000			
6. Armenian.....	15	21	8,500			
7. Old Catholic.....	3	5	425			
8. Reformed Catholic.....	6	5	1,600			
Total Catholics.....	13,521	11,411	10,233,824	99	226	241,955
Catholic Apostolic.....	95	10	1,491			
Chinese Temples.....		47				
Christadelphians.....		63	1,277			
Christian Connection.....	1,348	1,340	101,597			
Christian Catholic (Dowie).....	104	110	40,000			
Christian Missionary Association.....	10	13	754			

¹ Estimates; returns for 1904 not ready.

d Decrease.

TABLE I.—Continued

DENOMINATIONS	STATISTICS OF THE CHURCHES IN 1904			GAINS OF THE CHURCHES IN 1904		
	IN THE UNITED STATES ONLY			IN THE UNITED STATES ONLY		
	Ministers	Churches	Communi- cants	Ministers	Churches	Communi- cants
<i>Christian Scientists</i>	1222	611	66,022	104	52	5,739
<i>Church of God (Winebrenarian)</i>	460	580	38,000			
<i>Church of the New Jerusalem</i>	133	134	7,982	d10	d10	13
<i>Communitistic Societies:</i>						
1. Shakers.....		15	1,000			
2. Amana.....		1	1,766			
3. Harmony.....		1	8			
4. Altruists.....		1	25			
5. Church Triumphant (Koreshan Ecclesia).....		3	205			
6. Christian Commonwealth.....		1	80			
Total Communists.....		22	3,084			
<i>Congregationalist</i>	6,127	5,979	667,951	56	79	7,551
<i>Disciples of Christ</i>	6,635	11,088	1,233,866	158	131	26,489
<i>Dunkards:</i>						
1. Conservative.....	2,775	900	95,000	2		
2. Old Order.....	213	75	4,000			
3. Progressive.....	265	144	15,000	25	d46	d1,000
4. Seventh-Day (German).....	5	6	194			
Total Dunkards.....	3,258	1,125	114,194	27	d46	d1,000
<i>Evangelical Bodies:</i>						
1. Evangelical Association.....	916	1,659	99,411	1	13	299
2. United Evangelical.....	507	997	65,298	7	1	1,417
Total Evangelical.....	1,423	2,656	164,709	8	14	1,716
<i>Friends:</i>						
1. Orthodox.....	1,281	830	92,820	91		1,805
2. "Hicksite".....	115	183	19,545		d18	d1,295
3. "Wilburite".....	38	53	4,468			
4. Primitive.....	11	9	232			
Total Friends.....	1,445	1,075	117,065	91	d18	510
<i>Friends of the Temple</i>	4	4	340			
<i>German Evangelical Protestant</i>	100	155	20,000			
<i>German Evangelical Synod</i>	945	1,213	209,791			
<i>Jews:</i>						
2. Orthodox.....	135	340	62,000			
1. Reformed.....	166	230	81,000			
Total Jews.....	301	570	143,000			
<i>Latter-Day Saints:</i>						
1. Utah branch.....	700	796	300,000			
2. Reorganized branch.....	860	542	43,250	35	14	1,178
Total Mormons.....	1,560	1,338	343,250	35	14	1,178
<i>Lutherans:</i>						
1. General Synod.....	1,285	1,682	223,473	23	d1	6,547
2. United Synod, South.....	216	455	43,262	11	2	1,095
3. General Council.....	1,312	2,016	370,668	17	d49	8,010
4. Synodical Conference.....	2,289	3,694	574,010	d13	717	27,669
5. United Norwegian.....	404	1,280	144,296	26	56	5,169
<i>Independent Synods</i>						
6. Ohio.....	518	684	97,232	4	19	2,837
7. Buffalo.....	26	30	5,540	d2	d10	
8. Hauge's.....	109	275	33,000	2	13	12,978
9. Eielsen's.....	7	50	1,550			50
10. Texas.....	14	20	2,300	1	d3	235

Estimates; returns for 1904 not ready.

d Decrease.

TABLE I.—Continued.

DENOMINATIONS	STATISTICS OF THE CHURCHES IN 1904 IN THE UNITED STATES ONLY			GAINS OF THE CHURCHES IN 1904 IN THE UNITED STATES ONLY		
	Ministers	Churches	Communi- cants	Ministers	Churches	Communi- cants
	11. Iowa	473	868	90,589	9	36
12. Norwegian	316	877	78,486	33		
13. Michigan, etc	38	55	8,758		d3	d616
14. Danish in America	53	127	8,000	1	d14	
15. Icelandic	10	37	3,785	1	1	1,389
16. Immanuel	17	14	3,500	3	1	1,500
17. Suomai (Finnish)	22	81	14,149	2	9	1,649
18. Norwegian Free	140	420	41,400	12	20	1,322
19. Danish United	98	147	9,268	d2	d3	1,234
20. Slovakian	10	25	3,500			
21. Finnish National	19	42	5,000			
22. Finnish Apostolic	10	15	3,000			
Independent Congregations	85	200	25,000			
Total Lutherans	7,471	13,094	1,789,766	128	819	73,856
Swedish Evangelical Mission Covenant (Waldenstromians)	291	307	33,400			
Mennonites						
1. Mennonite	430	289	23,169	5	1	195
2. Bruderhoef	9	5	352			
3. Amish	280	126	13,580	6	2	167
4. Old Amish	75	25	2,438			
5. Apostolic	2	2	209			
6. Reformed	43	34	1,680			
7. General Conference	140	77	10,682	5	1	137
8. Church of God in Christ	18	18	449			
9. Old (Wisler)	17	15	603			
10. Bundes Conference	45	17	3,036	1	1	36
11. Defenseless	20	11	1,126			
12. Brethren in Christ	121	138	3,629	45	79	526
Total Mennonites	1,200	757	60,953	62	84	1,061
Methodists						
1. Methodist Episcopal	17,158	27,121	2,847,932	105	100	25,167
2. Union Am. Methodist Episcopal	200	225	17,500	20	20	1,000
3. African Methodist Episcopal	6,510	5,816	786,125	10	16	1,125
4. African Union Meth. Episcopal	125	86	3,687	67	28	757
5. African Meth. Episcopal Zion	3,401	3,050	560,790	15	8	9,199
6. Methodist Protestant	1,551	2,242	183,894	14	d148	d146
7. Wesleyan Methodist	514	534	17,500	26	d30	d315
8. Methodist Episcopal, South	6,438	15,884	1,556,728	57	184	27,962
9. Congregational Methodist	415	425	24,000	5	10	500
10. Congregational Meth., (Colored)	5	5	319			
11. New Congregational Methodist	238	417	4,022			
12. Zion Union Apostolic	30	32	2,346			
13. Colored Methodist Episcopal	2,200	1,510	209,654	41	13	1,931
14. Primitive	97	100	7,000	24	d12	166
15. Free Methodist	1,015	1,021	29,658	d39	d4	920
16. Independent Methodist	8	15	2,569			
17. Evangelist Missionary	72	47	3,014	8	3	978
Total Methodists	39,977	58,530	6,256,738	343	178	69,244
Moravians	130	116	16,327	3	1	232
Presbyterians						
1. Northern	7,483	7,729	1,069,170	38	109	25,009
2. Cumberland	1,649	2,986	186,104	33	26	991
3. Cumberland (Colored)	583	558	42,000	133	158	3,000
4. Welsh Calvinistic	178	178	11,939			
5. United	957	947	121,328	18	28	2,504
6. Southern	1,538	3,082	239,988	21	38	4,846
7. Associate	12	31	1,053			
8. Associate Reformed, South	96	136	12,158			

TABLE I.—Continued.

DENOMINATIONS	STATISTICS OF THE CHURCHES IN 1904 IN THE UNITED STATES ONLY			GAINS OF THE CHURCHES IN 1904 IN THE UNITED STATES ONLY		
	Ministers	Churches	Communi- cants	Ministers	Churches	Communi- cants
	9. Reformed (Synod).....	127	119	9,117	21	d5
10. Reformed (General Synod).....	33	33	4,200	1	d5	d300
11. Reformed (Covenanted).....	1	1	40			
12. Reformed in U. S. and Canada	1	1	600			
Total Presbyterians.....	12,658	15,801	1,697,697	265	349	36,175
<i>Protestant Episcopal:</i>						
1. Protestant Episcopal.....	5,039	6,927	798,642	d11	138	25,381
2. Reformed Episcopal.....	100	78	9,282			
Total Protestant Episcopal ..	5,139	7,005	807,924	d11	138	25,381
<i>Reformed:</i>						
1. Reformed (Dutch).....	723	645	115,280	20	12	1,781
2. Reformed (German).....	1,160	1,728	263,954	43	31	8,074
3. Christian Reformed.....	111	165	21,767	12	4	568
Total Reformed.....	1,994	2,538	401,001	75	47	10,423
<i>Salvation Army</i>	2,367	721	25,009	6	25	
<i>Schmenkfeldians</i>	3	7	600		3	294
<i>Social Brethren</i>	17	20	913			
<i>Society for Ethical Culture</i>		4	1,500			
<i>Spiritualists</i>		334	45,030			
<i>Theosophical Society</i>		69	2,431		d1	531
<i>United Brethren:</i>						
1. United Brethren.....	1,943	3,971	251,312	12	5	2,434
2. United Brethren (Old Constitu- tion).....	442	512	21,888	5	d383	d9,348
Total United Brethren.....	2,385	4,483	273,200	17	d378	d6,914
<i>Unitarians</i>	555	456	71,000	15	4	
<i>Universalists</i>	727	869	54,000	d7	83	462
<i>Independent Congregations</i>	54	156	14,126			
Grand Total in 1904.....	151,113	199,658	30,313,311	1,674	2,310	582,878
Grand Total in 1903.....	149,439	197,348	29,730,433	1,707	3,276	889,734

DENOMINATIONS	Rank in 1904	Communi- cants	Rank in 1890	Communi- cants
Roman Catholic.....	1	10,104,219	1	6,231,417
Methodist Episcopal.....	2	2,847,932	2	2,240,354
Regular Baptist (Colored).....	3	1,929,139	3	1,348,986
Regular Baptist (South).....	4	1,850,889	4	1,280,060
Methodist Episcopal, South.....	5	1,556,728	5	1,209,976
Disciples of Christ.....	6	1,233,866	8	641,051
Regular Baptist (North).....	7	1,070,206	6	800,450
Presbyterian (Northern).....	8	1,069,170	7	788,244
Protestant Episcopal.....	9	789,642	9	532,054
African Methodist Episcopal	10	786,125	11	452,725
Congregationalists.....	11	667,951	10	512,771
Lutheran Synodical Conference.....	12	574,010	12	357,153
African Methodist Episcopal Zion.....	13	560,790	13	349,788
Lutheran General Council.....	14	370,668	14	324,846
Latter-Day Saints.....	15	300,000	21	144,352
Reformed (German).....	16	263,954	15	204,024
United Brethren.....	17	251,312	16	202,417
Presbyterian (Southern).....	18	239,988	18	179,738
Lutheran General Synod.....	19	223,473	17	187,462
German Evangelical Synod.....	20	209,791	20	164,630
Colored Methodist Episcopal	21	209,654	23	129,381
Cumberland Presbyterian.....	22	186,104	19	164,944
Methodist Protestant.....	23	183,894	22	141,989
United Norwegian Lutheran.....	24	144,296	25	119,972
Primitive Baptist.....	25	126,000	24	121,347
United Presbyterian.....	26	121,328	26	94,402
Reformed (Dutch).....	27	115,280	27	92,970
Christian Connection.....	28	101,597	29	90,718

PROTESTANT FOREIGN MISSIONARY SOCIETIES.

FROM THE BLUE BOOK OF MISSIONS FOR 1905. EDITED BY DR. H. O. DWIGHT.
PUBLISHED BY FUNK & WAGNALLS, NEW YORK CITY.

	Organized	No. of Missionaries, Men and Women	Native Workers, Men and Women	Stations and Outstations	Schools	Pupils	Hospitals and Dispensaries	Publishing Houses or Printing Establishments	Professing Christians	Added Last Year	Communicants	Income
UNITED STATES.												
Presbyterian Church (North)	1837	837	2,160	1,606	323	27,609	102	8	150,000	9,405	50,172	1,131,511
Presbyterian Church (South)	1861	164	195	340	21	1,981	3	3	17,000	1,558	8,267	236,757
Protestant Episcopal Church	1835	144	499	266	146	4,658	10	10	10,200	438	5,308	316,740
Reformed Church in America	1832	95	574	274	196	8,126	11	1	10,000	782	4,933	142,475
Reformed (German) Church in the U. S.	1878	22	100	65	50	437	2	1	10,000	782	2,150	69,500
Reformed Presbyterian Church Synod in N. A.	1836	18	8	15	6	34	6	1	4,000	247	3,548	66
Scandinavian Alliance Miss., N. A.	1891	3	100	34	13	15	7	1	4,000	247	3,548	66
Seventh Day Adventists Gen. Conference	1853	67	107	165	25	1,802	1	1	15,000	2,076	9,969	238,053
Southern Baptist Missionary Society	1845	138	215	295	66	1,802	1	1	500	15	500	111,688
Southern Baptist Convention	1853	6	31	36	9	15	11	15	39,231	1,954	16,434	219,239
United Brethren in Christ	1854	8	796	381	295	20,964	11	3	928,449	55,081	495,925	\$6,560,574
United Evangelical Church, Foreign Church Mis.	1859	153	796	381	295	20,964	11	3	928,449	55,081	495,925	\$6,560,574
United Presbyterian Church of N. A.	1859	153	796	381	295	20,964	11	3	928,449	55,081	495,925	\$6,560,574
Woman's Union Missionary Society of U. S.	1861	15	125	16	6	241,934	209	15	928,449	55,081	495,925	\$6,560,574
Total, United States	4,627	21,933	9,429	6,765	241,934	209	15	928,449	55,081	495,925	\$6,560,574
CANADA.												
Africa Industrial Mission	9	103	27	9	440	1	1	1,500	66	537	5,258
Baptist Conventions Maritime Prov.	21	229	10	82	330	1	1	10,000	522	4,779	20,148
Baptist Conventions Ontario and Quebec	41	229	10	82	330	1	1	10,000	522	4,779	36,315
Church of England in Canada	3	35	30	1	189	1	1	3,000	189	2,975	81,951
Methodist Church in Canada	1873	44	35	74	5,964	14	14	4,200	436	2,099	36,809
Presbyterian Church in Canada	1844	72	199	96	74	14	14	4,200	436	2,099	157,487
Total	190	566	166	165	6,734	15	1	18,700	1,213	10,393	\$ 337,968

GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

Baptist Missionary Society	1792	263	499	799c	600	12,871	.35	c.	34,333	1,167	15,388	437,985
Baptist Zenana Mission		70	223	26	103	8,860					10,245	57,591
China Inland Mission	1865	783	863	492	116	1,874	29	c.	20,000	1,688	10,245	225,152
Church Missionary Society	1799	1,344	7,823	549	2,546	133,012	25	15	289,958	11,824	84,723	1,917,800
Church England Zenana Mission		328	790	65	280	24,265	18					253,026
England, Presbyterian Church of	1847	103	462	271		2,483			17,000	894	8,423	170,620
Friends' Foreign Missionary Association	1867	103	850	239		16,047			5,600	243	2,848	109,496
Ireland, Presbyterian Church in	1840	84	467	165	102	7,053			5,000		1,672	95,644
London Missionary Society	1795	348	6,751	2,180	1,580	88,122	69	1	295,431	5,179	74,786	675,676
London Soc. for Promoting Christianity among the Jews		249			49							
North Africa Mission		83	25	19		1,150			100	12	82	43,618
Primitive Methodist Missionary Society	1870	17	9	26	16	320			2,000	211	1,726	30,943
Regions Beyond Missionary Union		62	24	15c.	100	4,000	6					98,500
Scotland, Church of For. Miss. Com	1829	153	666	157	252	16,723	25		7,000		3,518	221,149
Scotland, United Free Church	1843	3,441	1,002	1,081	63,220	63,220	55		c.	87,000	43,804	580,205
Society for the Propagation of the Gospel	1701	685	3,186	2,443	852	43,200	4		127,477			770,925
South American Missionary Society		54	32	17	20	3,000						92,519
United Methodist Free Churches		56	550	213	93	4,535			40,000	2,564	15,907	63,248
Universities Mission	1859	113	265	72	127	5,323			12,000	918	4,376	161,882
Wesleyan Methodist Mission	1815	298	3,732	2,710	1,300	104,689			255,000	8,421	75,107	754,147
Zenana Bible and Medical Mission		161	289	38	61	3,258	6					107,090

Great Britain and Ireland	6,072	31,641	12,263	11,261	551,816	241	19	1,026,112	39,050	353,395	\$7,126,763
British Colonies besides Canada	367	5,528	4,245	2,562	104,221	20	2	332,798	4,959	125,818	\$373,722

CONTINENTAL EUROPE.

Paris Evangelical Mission	168	1,355	887	678	30,197	6	3	140,606			31,236	176,297
Berlin Missionary Society	1824	224	349	381	255	9,072			4,022	5,354	39,297	151,105
Rhenish Missionary Society	1820	203	505	421	412	21,162			96,881	1,387	42,282	174,050
Moravian Missions	1732	393	2,189	226	235	24,576			100,371	1,678	32,850	434,854
Norwegian Missionary Society	128	1,368	746	990	38,070	3			68,625	888	11,516	160,751
Basel Missionary Society	1815	345	1,334	605	573	24,365			47,082	1,951	25,663	332,985

Continental Europe	2,470	10,252	4,792	4,343	198,129	19	6	648,418	26,061	364,210	\$2,473,529
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GENERAL SUMMARY.

United States	4,627	21,933	9,429	6,756	241,934	209	15	926,449	55,081	495,925	\$6,560,574
Great Britain and Ireland	6,072	31,641	12,263	11,261	551,816	241	19	1,026,112	39,050	353,395	7,126,763
British Colonies	557	11,194	4,411	2,727	110,958	35	3	351,498	6,172	136,211	711,690
Continental Europe	2,470	10,252	4,792	4,343	198,129	19	6	648,418	26,061	364,210	2,473,529
Aggregate	13,726	75,020	30,895	15,087	1,102,834	504	43	2,952,477	126,364	1,349,741	\$16,872,556

Notes.—1 Including Women's Society, but not Home Missions. 2 Two years total given; of this the half is given here. 3 Report of 1901-02. 4 Confirmations. 5 Including Home Missions. 6 Probably include in statistics of another Society found in this table. c, Estimate based on sound promises.

SOCIAL PROGRESS

STATISTICS OF HOME MISSIONS.

	Organized	Expended in 1904	Missionaries	Additions on Confessions
Baptist—				
Am. Bap. Home Miss. Soc.	1832	\$458,771	1,450	6,000
Am. Bap. Pub. Soc.	1824	134,012	144	1,076
Woman's Am. Bap. H. M. Soc.	1877	43,484	72	
Women's Bap. H. M. Soc.	1877	87,263	179	
Southern Bap. Convention.	1845	109,670	633	8,011
Natl. Bap. Pub. Board		27,520	30	
Congregational—				
Home Missionary Soc.	1826	570,629	1,916	5,767
Am. Missionary Ass'n.	1846	441,938	764	1,134
S. S. and Pub. Soc.	1832	69,589	43	
Church Bldg. Soc.	1853	207,493		
Cumberland Pres.		100,000	65	1,000
Disciples of Christ—				
Am. Chris. Miss. Soc.	1849	385,000	525	15,470
Free Baptist.	1834	31,888	9	919
Free Methodist Church.	1882	3,148		
Mennonites	1880	10,000	8	20
Methodist Episcopal—				
Miss. Soc. of M. E. Ch.	1819	534,452	¹ 4,000	
Ch. Extension Board.	1865	146,103		
Freedman's Aid Soc.	1866	124,710		
Woman's H. M. Aid of M. E. Ch.	1880	308,998		
Moravian	² 1849	11,003	34	422
Presbyterian—				
Bd. of Home Miss. of the Pres. Ch. in U. S. A.	1816	479,812	1,180	7,378
Woman's Bd. of H. M. of Pres. Church.	1878	345,883	484	1,153
Bd. of Ch. Erection	1844	193,570		
Southern Presbyterian		160,000		
Ex. Com. of Gen. Assembly		40,000	166	
Protestant Episcopal	³ 1820	539,989	1,140	
Reformed—				
Home Miss. Soc.	1831	95,500	185	1,096
Ch. Bldg. Department	1854	23,500		
Bd. of Publication.		500		
United Brethren	1853	85,000	160	15,401
United Pres—				
Bd. of Home Miss.	1872	105,000	245	1,540
Bd. of Freedmen's Miss	1865	67,530	225	94

¹ Churches aided. ² Work is carried on by the church as such, not by a society. ³ In addition to the foregoing amount, there were given for diocesan missions during the three years ended September 30, 1904, \$1,413,117.

ROMAN CATHOLIC MISSIONS IN THE UNITED STATES.

The Society for the Propagation of the Faith (R. C.) was founded in France in 1822. It was soon introduced into the United States and into all parts of Europe. Until 1904 the society had collected and distributed to Catholic missions over \$70,000,000. Of this sum nearly \$6,000,000 was given to the United States. Up to 1900 the contributions from this country amounted to \$1,120,420.

The Society of St. Vincent de Paul (R. C.), in 1903, had in the United States 7,413 members, distributed to 18,330 families relief aggregating \$214,597, which required 145,326 visits to the poor in their homes. This work was accomplished without one cent of expense.

CHURCH ENDOWMENTS.

Investigation shows that church endowments, so far as they exist in this country, are for the most part confined to the older, more populous, and more wealthy portions of the United States. The Great West is generally too new, and the South is generally too rural to have developed those conditions which at the same time suggest the need of endowments and provide the necessary funds to create them.

It is the so-called "up-town" movement of the church-sustaining population which strongly suggests endowment. The downtown home is vacated by a church-going family and probably occupied by several families of immigrants who care nothing for the churches on the ground. Thus population, spiritual needs and opportunities increase while church resources decrease. Many churches have died, and not a few have followed their members uptown, so that it has become true of many downtown districts in our large cities that dozens of churches have moved out while thousands of people have moved in.

It is to supplement decreasing resources and to meet increasing responsibilities that the endowment of churches in the midst of shifting populations is now being urged.

Endowment, as a general policy which embraces all parishes of a national church, is a very different thing from the endowment of churches so located in our great cities that they are evidently destined to be much weakened by the movement of population.

The experience of established churches in Europe, as contrasted with that of free churches both there and here, would seem to be conclusive as to two points, viz.: that endowments regardless of the financial ability of the people are unfavorable to the development of habits of benevolence, and unfriendly to spiritual life.

Human nature needs to give, but is not likely to grow in the grace of benevolence except under the pressure of powerful motives. In the case of a church able to give, an endowment, which in whole or in part relieves it of that necessity, thereby removes a needed motive.

We find that some churches are sensitive concerning the subject of endowments and do not care to give information. In other instances information has been given which we are bound to consider confidential. It may be stated, however, that some of them which are large and financially strong are not self-supporting. They have undoubtedly learned to lean by having something to lean on. It is claimed, however, that their gifts to benevolences are larger than they would be without the endowments.

It should be noted that the large property owned by Trinity Church, New York, has enabled it to plant and aid a number of churches which otherwise could not exist. And it is doubtless the large endowments of Trinity, and the partial endowments of St. George's Church, Grace Church and the Church of the Ascension (all of that city) which enable them to prosper although they remain down town.

The American Institute of Social Service has investigated the effects of church endowments as shown by the experience of more than fifty churches, representing various denominations in different parts of the country, and possessing funds which aggregate about \$4,500,000.

Inquiry was made as to the time the endowment had been held, whether it was restricted in its use, what had been its effect on contributions to current expenses and to benevolences, and what had been its influence on the spirituality and general life of the church.

The results of the investigation justify the following generalizations:

1. A majority of the churches reporting endowments are seeking to increase them, thus expressing their judgment that on the whole they are desirable.
2. A complete endowment has a paralyzing effect on the church possessing it.

3. Whether a partial endowment is desirable or otherwise depends on (a) the use which is made of the funds, and (b) the location and strength of the church.

a. A trust may, of course, be abused, but such abuse is no argument against the wisdom of trust funds.

b. It seems to be very generally agreed that a church which is being, or destined to be, depleted by the drift of population, while yet its opportunities of usefulness remain undiminished, should be endowed. The effect of endowment under such conditions is stated, almost uniformly, to be good.

THE CHURCHES AND THE LABOR MOVEMENT IN 1904.

There has been no marked change nor notable advance in 1904 in the relation of the churches to the labor movement. The Congregational National Council and the Triennial Convention of the Protestant Episcopal Church, each considered carefully prepared reports from eminent committees on the problems at issue between Labor and Capital, and the Congregational Council had representatives of organized labor on its program. The Protestant Episcopal Church has a standing committee on the subject composed of some of its most eminent bishops, priests and laymen, led by Bishop Potter. This church has two church societies devoted to the labor question, the active Church Association for the Advancement of the Interests of Labor, of which Miss Keyser is the effective secretary, and the Christian Social Union, which has done a large educational work upon these lines, but is now virtually merged in the former organization. At least one diocese (Long Island) has a permanent committee on Social Service, and many others consider the subject in their annual conventions. In this connection, too, should be mentioned the lectures on Christian Sociology given each winter in Philadelphia before large audiences under an endowment given by the Rev. Wm. L. Bull to the (Prot. Episcopal) Philadelphia Divinity School. The Presbyterian Church, North, has taken an advanced step in the appointment of a secretary of its Home Missionary Department, whose especial business it is to strengthen the bond between the church and the wage-earner.

In Great Britain, too, there has been no great change or advance, though the established church has its Christian Social Union, led by some of the foremost spirits of the church, while several Wesleyan and other clergymen, notably Dr. Clifford, of the Baptists, show much personal activity in labor matters. There is also a so-called Labor Church union with a few scattered "Labor churches" or Christian Socialist Brotherhoods. Scotland has an active Christian Social Union. The Salvation Army, too, in all countries gives an increasing attention to "Labor Colonies" and similar efforts. On the Continent, the Roman Catholic Church has a Christian Socialist movement of considerable strength, notably in Belgium, France, Germany and Austria, but it is in the main a political movement which develops numerous labor societies, strictly under the control of the Church, to offset the secular socialist democratic movement which in these countries has grown so rapidly and is always strongly secular and bitterly anti-clerical. In Belgium, during 1904, the Roman Catholic Christian Socialists lost several seats in the late election which has only led them to still further efforts. In Italy the Church has tacitly if not avowedly joined issue with the government to which till now it has been opposed, in order to strengthen itself and defeat the growing militant socialism. In Holland, too, it has joined forces with some of those who on many issues oppose it, in order to defeat its foes. In France its position on the Labor Question has been of necessity placed in subservience to the critical struggle between the Church and the Government.

SUNDAY-SCHOOL STATISTICS OF ALL NATIONS.

REPORT OF THE TENTH INTERNATIONAL SUNDAY-SCHOOL CONVENTION, 1902.

The figures for countries outside of North America are from the London *World's School Convention* of 1898.

COUNTRY.	Sunday-schools.	Teachers.	Scholars.	Total Membership.
<i>Europe.</i>				
England and Wales	43,632	613,036	6,843,072	7,456,108
Scotland	6,338	63,939	713,360	777,269
Ireland	3,620	27,980	319,316	347,296
Austria, including Bohemia	208	533	7,340	7,873
Belgium	83	403	4,616	5,019
Bulgaria	35	140	1,576	1,716
Denmark	819	4,275	71,371	75,648
Finland	7,611	12,928	165,140	178,066
France	1,475	3,876	61,200	65,079
Germany	7,131	39,872	814,175	854,047
Greece	4	7	180	187
Holland	1,900	4,962	168,110	173,072
Italy	336	1,482	15,787	17,269
Norway	749	3,311	65,311	68,622
Portugal	18	70	1,419	1,489
Russia	83	785	15,679	16,464
Spain	48	220	4,275	4,495
Sweden	5,360	18,144	252,247	270,391
Switzerland	1,762	7,490	122,567	130,057
Turkey in Europe	30	170	1,420	1,590
<i>Asia.</i>				
India, including Ceylon	5,578	13,937	247,472	261,409
Persia	107	440	4,876	5,316
Siam	16	64	809	873
China	105	1,053	5,264	6,317
Japan	150	390	7,019	7,409
Turkey in Asia	516	4,250	25,833	30,083
<i>Africa.</i>	4,246	8,455	161,394	169,849
<i>North America.</i>				
United States	139,817	1,419,807	11,493,591	12,913,398
Canada	10,220	82,153	685,870	768,026
Newfoundland and Labrador	353	2,374	22,766	25,140
Mexico	319	723	9,259	9,982
West Indies	2,306	10,769	111,335	122,104
Central America	231	577	5,741	6,318
<i>South America.</i>	350	3,000	150,000	153,000
<i>Oceania.</i>				
Australasia	7,458	54,670	595,031	649,701
Fiji Islands	1,474	2,700	42,909	45,609
Other Islands	210	800	10,000	10,800
World	254,698	2,409,688	23,227,430	25,637,118

Hawaii has 230 Sunday-schools, 1,413 teachers, and 15,840 scholars.

Referring to Hugo Grotius (1583-1645), Alexander Sutherland says: "At the devastation of a province or the capture of a city, he thinks it right that children, women, old men, clergy, farmers, merchants, and other non-combatants should be spared. He allows that tradition and precedent are against him, but he claims to be speaking for the newer spirit. He is doubtful whether it is right for the victors to ravish the women of captured places. All precedent, he says, establishes the right, but he praises those generals that refuse to exercise it. Speaking as a lawyer, bound by tradition, he has to admit the right of the victor to slay all prisoners taken in arms, but he thinks that if heathen they might be more wisely enslaved, and if Christian they ought to be only held to ransom."

RELIGIONS OF ENGLISH-SPEAKING PEOPLES.

FROM WHITTAKER'S (LONDON) ALMANAC, 1895.

Episcopalians.....	29,200,000	Free Thinkers.....	5,250,000
Methodists of all descriptions....	18,650,000	Lutherans, etc.....	2,800,000
Roman Catholics.....	15,500,000	Unitarians.....	2,600,000
Presbyterians of all descriptions..	12,250,000	Minor religious sects.....	5,500,000
Baptists of all descriptions.....	9,230,000	Of no particular religion.....	17,000,000
Congregationalists of all descriptions.....	6,150,000	English-speaking population.....	124,130,000

A very large number—more than 18,000,000—of Hindoos, Mohammedans, Buddhists, and others in the East also speak and read English.

INSTITUTIONAL CHURCHES.

An Important Note.—We give below and on the following page detailed information as to thirty churches carrying on "institutional" activities, *i.e.*, work for social betterment, social, educational, charitable or ameliorative. It is to be noted, however, that all these churches do not call themselves "institutional," and that many churches not here listed do carry on activities truly "institutional," in some instances quite as important and extensive as some here named. In fact, there are few churches to-day in the cities of the United States which do not in some way carry on at least one or more activities which might be called "institutional." In New York City alone, in 1900, out of 488 Protestant churches, 112 were carrying on direct institutional activities and almost all doing something in this line. Of the 112, 42 were Protestant Episcopal. It is said to-day in the Diocese of New York that there is not one Protestant Episcopal church which does not carry on at least some such activities

No.	CHURCH	CITY	STREET	PASTOR
1	Berkeley Temple.....	Boston...	Berkeley St. & Warren Av.	Allan A. Stockdale.
2	Morgan Memorial.....	Boston...	Shawmut Ave. & Corning St.	E. J. Helms.
3	Ruggles St. Baptist Church.....	Boston...	159 Ruggles St.	A. C. Dixon.
4	Theodore Parker Memorial.....	Boston...	Berkeley and Appleton Sts.	Chas. W. Wendte.
5	Christ Church.....	Cincinnati.	318 E. 4th St.	F. H. Nelson.
6	Lincoln Park Baptist Church.....	Cincinnati.	Freeman Ave.....	G. R. Robbins.
7	Pilgrim Church Institute.....	Cleveland.		Charles S. Mills.
8	Fourth Reformed Church.....	Dayton, O.	Summit St. and Home Ave.	R. F. Wicks.
9	People's Tabernacle.....	Denver...	Lawrence and 20th Sts.	Thos. Uzzell.
10	First Congregational Church.....	Jersey City	385 Bergen Ave.....	John L. Scudder.
11	Amity Church.....	N. Y. City.	310-12 W. 54.....	Leighton Williams.
12	Ascension.....	N. Y. City.	Fifth Ave. & 10th St.	Percy S. Grant.
13	St. Bartholomew's Parish House.	N. Y. City.	211 E. 42d.....	Leighton Parks.
14	Bethany Congregational Church.	N. Y. City.	Tenth Ave. & 35th & 36th.	Sydney H. Cox.
15	Broome St. Tabernacle.....	N. Y. City.	395 Broome St.....	A. Arrighi.
16	Calvary.....	N. Y. City.	Fourth Ave. & 21st St.	J. Lewis Parks.
17	St. Chrysostom.....	N. Y. City.	Seventh Ave. & 39th St.	Thos. H. Sill.
18	Temple Emanu-El.....	N. Y. City.	43d and Fifth Ave.	Joseph Silverman.
19	St. George's.....	N. Y. City.	Stuyvesant Sq.....	W. S. Rainsford.
20	Holy Communion.....	N. Y. City.	20th St. & Sixth Ave.	Henry Mottett.
21	Metropolitan Temple.....	N. Y. City.	14th St. & Seventh Ave.	Robert Bagnell.
22	St. Michael's.....	N. Y. City.	Amsterdam Ave & 99th St.	John P. Peters.
23	Church of the Sea and Land.....	N. Y. City.	61 Henry St.....	W. R. Jelliffs.
24	Spring St. Presbyterian Church.	N. Y. City.	246 Spring.....	H. Roswell Bates.
25	City Park Branch.....	Brooklyn.	209 Concord St.....	G. K. Newell.
26	Baptist Temple.....	Phila.	Broad and Beek Sts.	Russell H. Conwell.
27	Fourth Avenue Baptist Church.	Pittsburg..	Fourth Ave. & Ross St.	W. G. Partridge.
28	People's Church.....	St. Paul.		Sam'l G. Smith.
29	Seamen's Institute and Church..	San Fri'sco	33 Stewart St.....	S. H. W. Digby.
30	Good Samaritan Cathedral, Miss.	San Fri'sco	246 Second St.....	J. P. Turner.

*Incomplete returns through faulty blanks.

It is, however, to be remembered that good done is not always to be measured either by the number or extent of instrumentalities. These churches are not therefore selected because of necessity they are doing the most good, but because it is abundantly proven that instrumentalities, *with the right spirit*, and wisely suited to local needs do abundantly help, even as Christ gave the bread of earth, together with and as symbol of the bread of heaven. Dr. Robbins, pastor of the Lincoln Park Institutional Baptist Church, Cincinnati, writes us: "You will be pleased to know that the spiritual results have been largely increased by our methods of work. Notwithstanding the innumerable difficulties in this downtown field, we have received, during my pastorate of this church (16 years), 1,422 new members, of which 1,021 were by baptism." The success of the Pilgrim Congregational Church, Cleveland, of the Baptist Temple, Philadelphia, of the great Protestant Episcopal Institutional churches in New York City and elsewhere is well known. The year when the Methodist Church in the world lost 20,000 members, Morgan Chapel had more conversions than in any one of its previous fifty years. The average institutional Congregational Church gained in one year just six times as many additions on confession of faith as the average Congregational Church. In the Miami Association (Baptist churches of Cincinnati and vicinity) two institutional churches had 209 additions on confession of faith; twenty-one churches working on old lines had 116. We have given the returns exactly as they have come to us. In some cases our questions have been differently interpreted. Some estimate the number with which their work comes in contact, counting each separate individual case; some simply estimate the total numbers reached, not attempting to estimate the number of separate individuals. So in reporting the finances, some report the totals spent for the church and some simply the expenditures and outlay for their institutional work. Yet, allowing for these differences, the facts and figures here given can not be but instructive. One fact which stands out is, on the one hand, the large sums of money devoted to this work, and, on the other hand, the large returns which can be had for comparatively small expenditures. Institutional work is not dependent on large outlay, though, of course, that helps. The Cincinnati Baptist Church, above referred to, does its large and successful work on an expenditure of \$2,000 only. It is doubtful if another receives larger results for such an expenditure. Besides these institutional churches, there will be found in our list of Social Settlements details of some 12 Church Settlements where the institutional work of the church is carried on distinctly as a Settlement, and is therefore chronicled under that head.

THEOLOGICAL STUDENTS, 1894 AND 1904.

SEMINARIES.	ATTENDANCE.		Loss or Gain.	Per Cent.
	1894	1904		
Baptist (4 Seminaries)	332	234	- 48	-14
Methodist (3 Seminaries)	437	519	+ 82	+18
Presbyterian (3 Seminaries)	551	358	-193	-35
Congregational (5 Seminaries)	398	227	-171	-43
Protestant Episcopal (2 Seminaries)	160	133	- 27	-16
Harvard: Undenominational	50	42	- 8	-16
Union: Presbyterian	143	131	- 12	- 8
Yale: Congregational	118	91	- 27	-22
University of Chicago: Baptist*	152	171	+ 19	+12
Total (21 Seminaries)	2341	1956	385	-12

*Excluding summer quarter

REVIEWS OF COUNTRIES.
AUSTRALIA.

BY DR. CHARLES STRONG, MELBOURNE.

Continued fine rains and promise of a good harvest, together with a good wool "clip," give hopes of a revival of prosperity.

During the year, trade generally has been dull, and the sad cry of "unemployed" has been heard in the land. Even steady, good workmen have been out of employment.

Something has been done towards settlement of people on the land, and the purchase of land by Government, on which workingmen can have houses with gardens attached, at moderate rentals, within a short distance of the city. The growing of flax is likely to become a more important industry, and Government is proposing to offer a *bonus* on the cultivation of cotton, for which some parts of Australia, especially the northern territory of South Australia are said to be most suitable. There is also a proposal that Government should take over the tobacco industry, and out of the proceeds pay old-age pensions.

There has been much political unrest during the year. In the Federal Parliament there are three distinct parties. Free Traders, Protectionists, and Labor party. The bone of contention over which they have wrangled and fought for months, other legislation being very much at a standstill, has been an Arbitration Bill for the Settlement (compulsory) of disputes between employer and employed. Two points have been fiercely contested—the inclusion of civil servants in the bill and the giving of a "preference" by the proposed Arbitration Court, to trades unions. In favor of the first proposal, it is urged that if the State becomes an employer of labor it cannot be exempted from the conditions imposed on other employers, and that the civil servants, including the railway men, have as much need to be protected against an arbitrary government as against a private employer. In favor of the second proposal it is urged that the trades unions having borne the brunt of the battle, and being the only organized and recognized body against which an "award" could be given, some "preference" should be shown to them in case of a dispute. The object of the trades unions is, of course, to induce non-union men to fall into the ranks of the unions, and so consolidate labor.

Over this bill, the Protectionist Government, led by the Hon. Alfred Deakin, was wrecked. So also was the Labor Government, led by the Hon. W. Watson, after a few months of office. A coalition Government, consisting of Free Traders and Protectionists, now reigns, the leader being the Hon. George Reid (Free Trader), seconded by the Hon. Alfred Deakin (Protectionist). This, however, is but a temporary arrangement, the Government being able to count only on a majority of two or three Labor members, with the dissatisfied members of the Protectionists forming a strong opposition. Should Mr. Chamberlain's policy come up for approval, as it is likely to do, there is likely to be fresh division, and the Labor party which has gained greatly in strength throughout Australia, and is well organized in Parliament, with a very capable and much respected leader in the person of Mr. Watson, is now a force to be reckoned with.

The platform of the Federal Labor party is as follows:

1. Maintenance of a White Australia.
2. Compulsory arbitration to settle industrial disputes, with provision for the exclusion of the legal profession.
3. Old Age pensions.
4. Nationalization of monopolies.
5. Citizen military force and Australian-owned navy.
6. Restriction of public borrowing.
7. Navigation laws to provide (a) for the protection of Australian shipping against unfair competition; (b) registration of all vessels engaged in the coastal trade; (c) the efficient manning vessels; (d) the proper supply of life-saving and other equipment; (e) the regulation of hours and conditions of work; (f) proper accommodation for passengers and seamen; (g) proper loading gear and inspection of same.
8. Commonwealth bank of deposit and issue and life and fire insurance department, the management of each to be free from political influence.

9. Federal patent law, providing for simplifying and cheapening the registration of patents.
10. Uniform industrial legislation; amendment of Constitution to provide for same.

All candidates of the Federal Parliament sign the following pledge:

I hereby pledge myself not to oppose the candidate selected by the recognized political labor organization, and, if elected, to do my utmost to carry out the principles embodied in the Federal Labor Platform, and on all questions affecting the platform to vote as a majority of the Parliamentary Party may decide at a duly constituted caucus meeting.

The platform of the State Labor party is:

1. One adult one vote (State or municipal).
2. The abolition of special representation for public servants.
3. The establishment of a department of labor with a responsible minister.
4. The legalizing of the eight hour system and a minimum wage for all workers.
5. Equal pay for equal work.
6. The establishment by law of courts of compulsory arbitration between employers and employees.
7. No further alienation of Crown land.
8. The sustaining of village settlements and the creation of small landholders under a system of perpetual lease, with periodical valuation
9. Progressive tax on land values, town and country, without exemptions, exclusive of improvements.
10. A cumulative tax on all incomes over £200 per year.
11. Free, primary, secondary and University education with all necessary requisites provided by the State.
12. The maintenance and extension of technical education by the State.
13. Pensions for all aged or disabled persons.
14. Reform of the State Constitution.
15. Initiative and referendum.
16. The establishment of a State bank.
17. The establishment of a State life and fire insurance.
18. The establishment of a State forestry.

The Labor party have engaged the services of Mr. Tom Mann, a well-known English Socialist, whose work is to organize and lecture. Miss Locke, a young Australian lady, also is engaged in propaganda work.

The cry of "Socialism" and "Class Legislation" is raised by the Conservatives, and an anti-Socialist propaganda has been carried on, in which the Ladies' National League has taken an active part, the planks in its platform being:

Loyalty to the Throne; the Purity of the Home; the Combating of State Socialism; the Education of Women in Politics.

The experiment of a referendum has been resorted to in connection with the teaching of religion, or rather Bible lessons, in State schools. The result has been unfavorable to the introduction of the Bible. The Roman Catholics have been the most irreconcilable opponents of Scripture lessons even with a stringent conscience clause, and insist on having nothing in the shape of religion taught in the schools, or on having a separate grant to themselves. Meanwhile, instruction is given by Protestant clergymen in some of the schools outside school hours. Some urge the introduction of ethical lessons illustrated from Scripture, with non-theological hymns, and regard this ignoring of character-education as a dangerous feature in our educational system.

The State of Victoria has not yet granted the franchise to women, although they are free to vote for the Federal Parliament, and may possibly ere long be elected members of it.

The concession of this right, however, is only a matter of time. The women of Australia are taking greater interest in public affairs, and there is better organization among them. A congress was lately held in Melbourne by the National Council of Women, attended by delegates from the different States, at which such questions as the Establishment of a Special Court for the trial of children and youths arrested by the police, the Mind of the Child; Peace and Arbitration Literature as a Profession for Women, Dentistry as a Profession for Women and Hospitals were discussed. The National Council has also been interesting itself in the establishment of an epileptic colony, and the appointment of police matrons at the city lockups to look after female prisoners.

Legislation is in process giving power to deal with the habitual drunkards, criminals and otherwise who are a danger alike to themselves and to society. Criminology receives some attention, and small criminology societies exist in Melbourne and Adelaide. The Comptroller-General of Prisons in the State of New South Wales has lately published an interesting and exhaustive account of his visits to the prisons and reformatories of Europe and America. He reports favorably of reforms introduced in such prisons as Elmira. The Criminology Society of Melbourne has long urged the introduction of the indeterminate sentence, and there seems to be a prospect of legislation in this direction in the near future. The society urges also the introduction of other human and enlightened methods of treatment, the introduction of educational influences, work of an interesting, useful kind by which the prisoner may be made to contribute to his own support and that of his family, and establishment of a farm for discharged prisoners.

The peace and arbitration movement does not find great favor in Australia. Nevertheless, an address signed by several hundreds of citizens in different States was forwarded to the International Congress of Peace in Boston. A motion was also brought forward in the Senate expressing gratification at the reference of the unhappy dispute between Britain and Russia to arbitration. By 18 votes to 10, however, this motion was lost. The mover, a prominent member of the Labor party, has expressed the determination not to rest until International Arbitration becomes a recognized plank in the Labor platform.

The Report of the Anti-Sweating League, Melbourne, for 1903-1904, shows that some good work is being done by the citizens, drawn from all classes, who seek, by influencing public opinion, making representations to Parliament, exposing cases of sweating which are brought under their notice, and privately approaching employers against whom complaints are made, to check the great evil of overwork and underpay. The question of the competition of charitable institutions with the ordinary industrial worker has been lately engaging their attention, and the Council of the League has unanimously agreed that if charitable institutions, even in a small way, engage in trade, they must be compelled to accept the same standard of prices, wages, hours, taxation, and inspection as private establishments.

Religious negotiations among Presbyterians, Methodists and Congregationalists are still carried on with a view to the federation or re-union of Protestant churches. The decision, however, of the Lords, in the Scottish Free Church case, has brought out a danger and a difficulty, arising out of the trust deeds and creeds. If the principle laid down by the highest court in Britain is to be accepted, even so-called "free" churches are not at liberty to play fast and loose with property and money given for the support and propagation of certain theological dogmas, however far the "advanced" among the clergy may have departed from them and from their ordination vows. Acts of Parliament will henceforth be necessary if churches are so anxious to "progress" and unite, and an appeal to Parliament always gives opportunity to the "orthodox" minority to protest against the diversion of trust, land, or money from its original purpose.

Australia gets the name of being a temperate country, but the drink bill for 1903 is quoted at 13½ millions of pounds sterling, which is a large amount considering that the population is only 3,904,785, including teetotallers and children.

The "tied-house" evil is a crying one. A large percentage of the public houses are "tied" to the brewers.

The importation of opium into Australia has caused some anxiety. Last year, £59,000 worth was imported from Hong Kong, China, and elsewhere.

The question of Chinese labor has been a "burning" one lately. The Australian worker insists on Chinese work in the furniture trade being *stamped*,

and on Chinese workers conforming to the eight-hour system. They complain that the Chinese, having a different standard of living and of workmanship from the Australian, undersells the Australian worker and competes unfairly.

The birth-rate of Australia has been decreasing. The Citizens' National League in Melbourne has taken the matter up with a view to discovering the causes. Some allege causes which are not creditable to the women of Australia. The love of dress, ease, sport, and pleasure, and the prevailing selfishness among certain classes which prevents children being born, are alleged to be partly responsible for the striking diminution. Others maintain that the decrease in births is counterbalanced by healthier children and the decrease in infant mortality.

HISTORY OF THE LABOR MOVEMENT IN AUSTRALIA.

BY MISS LILIAN LOCKE, OF MELBOURNE.

The Labor Movement in the Australian States received its great impetus from the maritime strike of 1890 and the rise of a definite pledged party in most of the States dates from about this period, although there were members in the various parliaments elected previously who supported the principles of the party before it became crystallized. The growth of the movement has been rapid, especially since the advent of federation. At the present time, 1904, in the second parliament of the Australian commonwealth labor is represented by 38 pledged members, 14 of whom are in the Senate, which is a House of 36 members, and during the past year we have witnessed the unique spectacle of a labor government which held office for four members. The party is now in possession of the opposition benches.

Full parliamentary franchise having been granted to every adult in the commonwealth, the women cast their votes for the first time in December, 1903, in fair proportion to the percentage of male electors who went to the ballot.

In New South Wales in 1891 a great political sensation was caused by the return of 36 out of 45 Labor members who stood for election. Shortly afterward there was a session which objected to the discipline which was deemed necessary in order to insure solidity. At the next election 27 Labor representatives (pledged and independent) were returned, but from 1895 to 1901 the strength of the Parliamentary party was about 18 or 19, increasing again to 25. Candidates are pledged to the political Labor League platform (which does not differ in essentials from that adopted by the other States). They are also pledged to vote especially on questions affecting the fate of a government, as a majority of a duly constituted caucus may decide.

During the past thirteen years much legislation of an important character has been passed, owing to the efforts of this party, such as Industrial Arbitration, Miners' Accident Relief, Coal Mines Regulation, Early Closing, Navigation Act Amendment, Land Tax, Old Age Pensions, Women's Franchise, Electoral and Trucks Act, all of which, with many other reforms, were of inestimable benefit to the great mass of the people.

Victoria sent four Labor men into Parliament in 1889, and the party, though unpledged, increased to 11 in a house of 95 members by the year 1902. In the elections of 1904 the party was successful in securing 19 seats, notwithstanding the fact that a reduction of nearly one-third in the number of members was carried out, and that Conservative governments had held sway for a number of years previously. The Labor party is now in direct opposition, with a remnant of the old Liberal party in the corner. Perhaps the most important piece of legislation secured in this State is the Shops and Factories Act with its provision for special boards to fix wages, hours of work, and general conditions. Nearly 40 trades have so far come under the Act, and the number of factories and those employed in them is increasing. The labor movement is growing

very solidly and surely in Victoria, the work of organization going on steadily and being greatly forwarded by the splendid work of Mr. Tom Mann, whose services have been retained by the controlling organization, the Political Labor Council. This body has some 80 branches throughout the State, and there is a steady accession to the number of those who believe in the gradual advent of an era of economic socialism as distinguished from a mere trades union movement. There is also the Social Democratic party, a propagandist organization which works toward the same ideal.

QUEENSLAND.

In 1893, 15 pledged Labor men were returned to the Queensland Parliament, to which number 2 more were added through seats won at bye-elections. In 1896 20 Labor men were returned, and by 1899 the party had increased to 24. An additional seat was won in 1902, notwithstanding that 5 prominent men from the party had been transplanted to the Federal Parliament. There are now 35 Labor members in this Parliament, out of a house of 72, representing agricultural, pastoral, mining, as well as metropolitan, interests. A coalition government has been formed, 2 Labor men being included in the Cabinet. In Queensland the trades unions are political as well as industrial, and their organ, *The Brisbane Worker*, is the centre of organization at election times. In the commonwealth Parliament every Queensland seat, with the exception of three, is filled by Labor men.

WEST AUSTRALIA.

Trades unionism is in West Australia, as in Queensland, the bedrock of the labor movement. In both houses of the Federal Parliament the Labor men secured every seat but two. The first Trades Union Congress was held in 1898, when some 4,000 workers were represented. At the present time, 1904, there are about 30,000 workers organized. Seven pledged Labor men were returned to Parliament in 1900, while at the last elections they had increased to 23, and a Labor Cabinet, which includes one Liberal Minister in the Upper House, is now holding the reins of government.

South Australia was the first State to form a direct Labor party, and at the present time organization is very thorough throughout the State, nearly every Trades union being affiliated with the United Labor Party of South Australia. In 1901, 2 members were returned to the Upper House. One Labor man only was returned to the Legislative Assembly prior to the election of 1903, but in that year the party succeeded in gaining 10 seats. At the present time the Labor party has only 5 members in the Assembly, and 1 in the Upper House, but the leaders are confident that they will win some 17 seats at the next elections.

Tasmania is slowly but surely being brought into line with the other States as regards the labor movement. There are at present only 4 Labor representatives in the State Parliament, but there are indications that a great awakening will take place before long owing to the bad conditions of the workers, the incubus of unjust taxation, and loss of population owing to land monopoly and other causes. The Workers' Political League is gradually extending its influence, but an obsolete and obstructive Upper House blocks the way to progressive and, indeed, to humanitarian legislation, such as has been in force for years past in other States.

(Women have parliamentary franchise in New South Wales, West Australia, South Australia, and Tasmania. Victoria and Queensland are behind-hand in this respect.)

BELGIUM.

BY DR. LOUIS VARLEZ, GHENT, COLLABORATOR OF THE AMERICAN INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL SERVICE AND OF THE MUSÉE SOCIAL, OF PARIS.

The year 1904 has not been one of importance in Belgium, from the standpoint of social advance. Legislation has wholly neglected social and labor questions, and public administration has not advanced on this line in any important way, unless it be for the order carrying into effect the law of last year compelling indemnity for all accidents in industry. The order, too, encourages, though it cannot compel, insurance against such accidents. It creates numerous coöperative associations for such insurance.

Similar associations for insurance against unemployment have also been encouraged by the municipalities. Twelve of the most important towns have either adopted, with more or less modification, the system inaugurated at Ghent, or are proposing to do so. The movement is reaching even the provincial administrations, though not the central government. The French chamber, however, has voted unanimously to universalize the system in France and to grant it state aid. Almost all the larger French cities are taking it up.

The Belgian government, however, if it has not acted in this matter, has begun—somewhat feebly, it is true—yet nevertheless begun to organize and officially recognize Public Employment Bureaus, upon the principle of equal rights for employers and employees. This movement which derives its strength from the remarkable success in Germany, bids fair to be largely extended in Belgium.

The question, however, which has most deeply interested legislators this last year in Belgium has been that of the preservation and aid of the small shopkeepers. A commission has investigated the question in all the most important centres, and its hearings have filled six large volumes with the plaint of the small bourgeoisie. The Commission is at present formulating its conclusions, and will then have to draft a program, which will not be without great difficulty, since the propertied classes have views not easily reconciled with economic progress.

The year 1905 promises to be of more importance in social thought. Two laws are already proposed which will probably elicit general legislative discussion. The first of these is the question of the Sunday Rest and the prohibition of Sunday labor. It is favored by all workmen and by democrats of all kinds, but is vigorously opposed by employers and by some politicians on constitutional grounds. The second proposed law, and one which the Government has officially announced that it will introduce this year, concerns boards of arbitration and conciliation which it proposes to establish in place of the present boards and which, if official statements are to be believed, will give representation on the boards to both employers and employees.

Turning from governmental action to private, one finds the same lack of events. Trade unions, which have made such advances in Germany, Great Britain, the Netherlands, the United States, have not advanced in Belgium, and in spite of the lack of statistics, can undoubtedly be said to have lost ground. The year 1904 has been unfavorable for political socialism. The Socialists are paying dearly, as we foresaw in our review last year, for the defeat of their general strike of a year ago. What has so rarely happened in the history of socialism, Socialists have this year lost half a dozen seats to the Liberals. The Conservative Catholics have also lost, so that the Liberal minority has been increased from both directions. The Liberal party has, however, it should be noted, wholly abandoned its policy of non-intervention in social and industrial matters and has adopted an extended radical program. The Catholic Conservatives are the more disturbed because they have been in power for twenty-one consecutive years. They have determined to tighten still more the network of

social organizations with which they have covered the country and having organized coöperative societies of every kind for the agricultural classes and the small bourgeoisie, they propose now to do the same for the industrial classes. A committee of propaganda has been named, with a popular and eloquent Dominican father at its head, and it is already forming such societies in quarters where hitherto there have been none. The direction of the societies is naturally held in church hands, and Socialists and Free Thinkers are excluded.

There is no important strike to be noted, except the successful one of the diamond workers, in Antwerp. They were compelled to concede the establishment of the apprentice system, but gained a reduction of hours, and the maintenance of wages. This victory was the more important as it called out the support and interest of all the unions, and the result was claimed as a victory for the whole trades union movement. The Antwerp Diamond Workers' Union was the strongest and richest union in Belgium, and that which had most completely organized the trade; nevertheless, unfortunately, its success has not as yet led other unions to organize in similar strength.

Another strike, or rather lockout, among the glassworkers, illustrates the weakness of Belgian unions, as it was largely precipitated by a rivalry between two unions, and harmonious action was prevented by the material jealousies of their leaders. It cost the men thousands in wages.

Among the sociological questions of the year should be mentioned that of industry in private houses, favored by the conservatives as helping to maintain the family and prevent the development of industrial centers, which inevitably become centers of revolutionary activity. In few countries is there more effort to develop such industries than in Belgium, but with little success. Progressive thinkers and the workers oppose any efforts to block the national tendency to continued production; industry in private houses does not increase.

There has been also serious discussion of the nationalization of mines. Recent discoveries have found new rich coal beds, and discussion has been general as to how they are to be worked. In spite of a conservative government it seems quite possible that the principle of state ownership will be affirmed in some form in the concessions and even the creation of public mines may be accomplished in a future more or less near.

CANADA.

BY MR. R. H. COATS, ASSOCIATE EDITOR OF THE "LABOR GAZETTE," THE JOURNAL OF THE DEPARTMENT OF LABOR, CANADA.

The industrial year of 1904 in Canada showed on the whole a falling off as compared with 1903, though several branches of employment were more active, and the outlook, in view of the extraordinary expansion that had prevailed during 1903, is more settled than it was a year ago. Geographically speaking, most of the provinces held their own, British Columbia in particular showing a better tone since the settlement of the labor troubles by the Royal Commission of 1903. In Manitoba and the Territories, the year was one of unprecedented growth, immigration returns and the expansion of population being on a scale never before recorded. The year opened unfavorably as compared with 1903, chiefly as a result of the exceptionally severe weather which prevailed during the winter months and which in the case of Ontario produced a blockade of transportation that was felt in almost every branch of industry. The autumn months, on the other hand, were characterized by clear and open weather, enabling out-of-door operations to be continued for from two to three weeks longer than in the average season.

Strikes were very much less prevalent than in 1903, numbering only 103, as against 160 last year, and involving, all told, less than 16,000 work people.

The wages movement was less markedly upward in tendency, large reductions going into effect in the lumbering industry, though farm and unskilled labor generally received higher schedules than ever before. Cost of living was upward, a rise in house rents being reported in almost every city of the Dominion, with a severe famine in workingmen's houses prevailing at many points, particularly at Toronto. The record of labor organizations formed showed less than one-half the activity of 1903, new unions numbering about 130, while the number surrendering their charters was considerably in excess of last year.

Among the different industries and trades, activity was very general. Agriculture had a successful year, as a result of the western grain crops, though elsewhere the returns were less satisfactory. Fishing was a failure, especially in British Columbia, where the salmon run was the smallest in many years; good prices, however, helped to compensate for the small catches taken on the Atlantic coast. Lumbering in Ontario and the eastern provinces met poor markets in Great Britain, and reduced cuts for the season of 1905 were the result; in British Columbia also a poor year was experienced. Mining and manufacturing compared favorably with 1903, the former branch having improved, particularly in British Columbia, and the latter reporting an exceedingly prosperous outlook in the steel and iron branches, especially in the closing months of the year. In the transport trades an exceptionally busy season was reported, railway construction being active, especially in western Canada, and promising at the end of the year, in view of the projected new transcontinental line and the extension of branch lines by the older companies, the most active period yet seen in Canada. The building year was in almost every section of Canada, but more particularly in the west, the most active in the history of the country. Accompanying this activity in industrial circles the trade of the country, foreign and domestic, continued to expand, the total for the fiscal year ending June 30 being \$5,000,000 in excess of that of 1903, or \$467,000,000. Exports, however, declined during the closing months of the year, and the number of mercantile insolvencies was in excess of the record for 1903. The Dominion revenue reached a higher point than ever before. From a legislative standpoint the year was less active than 1903, though, as above stated, the ratification of the agreement relating to the construction of the Grand Trunk Pacific Railway was a most important measure for the future development of the country. A highly interesting incident of the year was the first application of the Railway Labor Disputes Act of 1903, under which disputes between railway companies and their employees, which may threaten to develop into strikes or lockouts, are referred for settlement to a tribunal which, though its award is not binding, has power to investigate the entire circumstances of the dispute and to publish its findings thereon.

CHINA

BY ARTHUR H. SMITH, D.D., P'ANG CHUANG, TE CHOU, SHANTUNG, CHINA.

The past year has presented the peculiar spectacle of a great Eastern Empire watching two others fighting one of the most destructive of modern wars over its own territory, while yet remaining a passive spectator, and technically "neutral." Such a phenomenal and abnormal state of things is not inherently favorable to "social progress" in China, nevertheless it is probable that no single year has witnessed so great a variety of plans and efforts in many different directions, tending to a modification of existing social conditions. In so brief a survey it is not practicable to make accurate classification, nor, without descending into detail, to do more than indicate the general lines of actual and potential advance. The recent treaties between Great Britain, the United States and Japan, call for certain reforms, some of which have been partially entered upon. The abolition of the internal tax known as "likin" is agreed upon, but those best qualified to judge are by no means

sure that its place will not be taken by a surreptitious substitute. China has promised to adopt a currency reform, and to this end invited Professor Jencks of Cornell University to visit the country. His wide travels, his audience with the Throne, his many interviews with the highest officials in the Empire, and his patient diffusion of monetary light, can not fail to produce some result. It is reported that the Government is endeavoring to accumulate a "gold reserve" as a fund for the security of a gold basis to a silver currency. What the outcome may be no one can as yet safely predict. The Board of Revenue is about to establish a long-talked-of Bank at Tientsin, with future branches all over the Empire, which will eventually facilitate postal and telegraphic transfers of money, hitherto impossible, a change of momentous possibilities. Meanwhile the existing mints have been issuing enormous quantities of copper coins in foreign style, and more recently a tael (ounce) piece has been coined, the success of which is as yet unproved, though highly probable. A new mine has been established in Soochow, and another is about to be opened in Shanghai, and perhaps in other centers also. Experience has shown that the new copper five cash, ten cash, and other copper coins are admirably adapted to commercial needs, and find ready acceptance. Regulations for the registrations of patents, of copyrights, and of trademarks have been sent out by the new Board of Commerce. In regard to trademarks especially, much foreign opposition has been encountered, through fear of fraud in registration, so that a postponement seems to have been secured of the operation of the new rules. The sale of office, which by Imperial Edict was forever to cease from the autumn of last year, has been revived by the Board of Revenue, on the time-honored and familiar plea of "No-help-for-it." The traditional distinctions between Manchus and Chinese in the holding of certain offices hitherto reserved for the former only, is now done away with, to the distinct advantage of the public service. The number of new railways in China projected, authorized, or actually begun, is much larger than at any time since 1899, but not many of these are yet in full operation. The past year has witnessed the completion of the German line from Ts'ing Tao to Chi Nan Fu (the capital of Shantung) with spectacular accompaniments, and with great promise for the future. Its early extension northward to Tientsin is expected, in connection with the British extension from the southern border of the province to Chinkiang, of the Yang-tzu. This will be one of the main routes in the Empire, but work is not as yet begun. The case is otherwise with the British line from Shanghai to Hanking, which is past its preliminary stages.

The Lu Han route (Peking to Hankow) is now opened from the north almost to the Yellow River, and from Hankow northward, excepting a few hundred *li*, and with the exception of the great bridge over the Yellow River, the whole road will doubtless be open to traffic in 1905. The southern connecting line (Yueh Han) from Hankow to Canton has been the subject of fierce contention among the Chinese themselves, owing to the breach of faith on the part of the American syndicate, which sold its interest to Belgians in 1900. The concession is said to be now cancelled by the Chinese Government, and who will finally build this important thoroughfare through the heart of the southern provinces is not as yet publicly known. A branch line from the Lu Han road through the Shansi mountains to the capital, T'ai Yuan Fu, is under construction. It will be important in both a military and a commercial way. Other projected lines can not here be even mentioned, but many of them will probably be completed in the not distant future, and will have important results in the development of China. As an immediate consequence of the German railway in Shantung, Chi Nan Fu, and the great trade centers, Wei Hsien, and Chou Ts'un are to be opened as "ports," and possibly other cities as well. There is a deepened canal from Chi Nan Fu to the sea by which there is hereafter to be regular and frequent steam communication between the capital, and Chefoo, as well as Tientsin.

All these are steps of prime importance in the line of progress. Steam navigation on other inland waters is rapidly being introduced, and despite strong opposition is certain to increase. Ch'ang Sha Fu (the capital of Hunan) is now an open port with a foreign settlement, and with three steam lines to Hankow. South T'ung Chou, near Shanghai, is also opened as a port, with a brisk trade from the start. The educational progress of China during the past year is illustrated in the equipment of Provincial, Military, Normal and other Colleges all over the Empire, varying greatly in merit, and largely under the influence of Japanese teachers. Hundreds of Chinese students have been sent to Japan to study all branches of learning, and after a brief stay great numbers of them return to be placed at the head of work which they have no fitness to undertake. This subservient superficiality is characteristic of all Chinese operations, and often leads the best friends of China to despair of the accomplishment of anything conducted wholly by Chinese. There is even now a strong suspicion that the Imperial Edicts ordering the adoption of Western Education are not intended to be taken seriously, and that they are for the most part merely stage thunder. A comparatively novel feature of the Chinese educational movement is the establishment of a considerable number of schools for women and girls, none of them having any connection with foreigners, extending from Canton to Peking. They are to be found in the main centers of activity, and undoubtedly owe their origin indirectly to an impulse received from abroad. Foreign travel on the part of distinguished Chinese for study and for observation, is a growing feature of Chinese life. The visit of Prince P'u Lun to the St. Louis Exposition may prove to be an important event for his country, as it is said that since his return he has diligently applied himself to study, being greatly impressed with the inferiority of China to Western lands. It is understood that Imperial Princes will be sent to Belgium to study, as many students have already gone there and been most kindly received. One Magistrate of advanced ideas has ordered an examination of practicing doctors within his jurisdiction, those passing to be licensed, and all others forbidden to practice. This is an immense innovation. Foreign trained physicians are becoming more numerous in Canton, where very large sums were contributed by Chinese to the building of the new Hospital of the Medical Missionary Society. During the year a great extension of the postal system has taken place, and after five months of relative chaos the rates have been revised and the service greatly improved in security and in speed. Its use by the Chinese is sensibly increasing. Foreign drilled uniformed police have been introduced into many of the leading cities of China, and also street lighting with results varying with local conditions and the temper of the officials, but the change is significant and important. Chinese telephone systems have been established in Peking, Tientsin, and in Canton, and one is talked of for Shanghai. A new telegraph line from Peking to Kiachta has been opened to international traffic, and a line to Lhasa, the distant and inaccessible capital of Thibet is projected. Ningpo is soon to have an electric-light plant, one half of the capital to be subscribed by Chinese, and it is decided to introduce this light into Canton on an extensive scale. Many and important improvements in Agriculture have been entered upon, such as tree planting on an immense scale, the introduction into Shantung of a better grade of mulberry trees for the silkworm, and the opening of Agricultural Colleges, Schools of Forestry, and the like, under trained teachers mainly from Japan, and model farms. In one instance a Japanese instructor inspected nineteen districts (or counties) with a view to improvement in husbandry. Industrial Schools are springing up in many of the large cities of China, having for their objects the instruction of selected candidates of the poor, the aged, and in some cases of dependent women. The total number of arts, and trades which are taught is large. The mere existence of this state of things is full of promise, despite probable, or even certain initial failures.

Many new manufactures are being undertaken on foreign lines, such as a tannery in Tientsin, knitting companies, porcelain kilns in central China. Steam trawlers on the China Sea have been formally sanctioned by the Board of Commerce. During the past year the anti-footbinding movement has made great progress even in the most conservative parts of the Empire. Officials of all grades from Prefects and Tao-t'ais, up to Governors and Governors-General have aided it by vigorous proclamations. One energetic Governor memorialized the Throne for a more stringent Imperial Edict on the subject. It is easy so to represent the symptoms of social progress in China as to convey an erroneous impression that the Empire is already in the active process of general reform, but it is difficult to overestimate the tidal strength of the invisible impulse which is pressing these innumerable multitudes forward into altered and improved conditions, the scope of which is truly beyond human ken.

FRANCE.

BY COUNT LEON DE SEILHAC, MEMBER OF THE ADMINISTRATION OF THE
MUSÉE SOCIAL.

I. THE STRIKERS.

The registered seamen first struck at Marseilles in 1900, were sustained by the dockers, and gained the most of their demands. In 1902 they repeated their attempt, but this time without success. The merchant vessels were temporarily manned by marines from the men of war, and the strike failed. Finally, in May, 1904, the seamen started a new strike, demanding the discharge of officers against whom they complained. To this the officers of the merchant marine replied by going themselves on strike. This was really a *lockout*, for the officers supported and encouraged by the owners, determined to end the continual demands of the men.

But the question came up of the right to strike—both of registered seamen and of registered officers. According to the decree of 1852, registered seamen who leave their vessels become deserters. They are, in fact, considered as soldiers the moment they have passed the inspection of equipment, made in the presence of the Commissioner of Maritime Registration, and which officially sanctions the engagement made between the captain of the ship, representing the owner, or the company and the sailor. From this moment the sailor is enrolled and the owner is pledged under penalty of prosecution by the authorities of the marine. The owner must care for and bring home, at his own expense, the sailor who falls ill during the voyage. He can not land him where he pleases. It would be very strange if this contract were one-sided and bound only the owner. Therefore, every man who abandons his ship without permission is declared a deserter.

But can not this discipline be ruptured by a strike? No, we affirm, in opposition to M. Pelleton, who considers these rules superannuated and not applicable. Then let them be abolished, but at the same time let the special duties be abolished which are incumbent upon shipowners only and not upon any other employer; let them be at liberty to recruit their men where they please and not be obliged to take two-thirds of them from among the registered seamen: it is this which gives the latter a veritable monopoly. Let all the bonds be unbound, and if the seamen are to receive back their liberty, let the owners also have theirs.

At present registered seamen are at liberty to go upon a strike as long as they have not signed an official engagement before the commissioner, an engagement which binds them for one year for short voyages and the voyage going and coming for long voyages. "A singular law is this which permits

workmen to go on strike when they are not employed and which prohibits it when they are," observes the *Revue Generale de la Marine Marchand*.

Pardon; the workmen are at liberty to sign or not to sign their engagement. And if we are told that this liberty does not exist for ordinary workmen, we would remark that we are now speaking of workmen who are enjoying a veritable monopoly and having a legal adviser, who is the Commissioner of Maritime Registration, to defend their rights.

The strike of Marseilles was ended by a sentence of arbitration which only confirmed the preceding arbitration accepted in 1903 and which is destined to be as little respected as that of 1903.

A strike of no less interest was that of the farm laborers. When the strikes reach the country, you will say, revolution is not far off? Not at all. The greater part of the farm lands in France are occupied by peasant proprietors of small pieces of land and sometimes by large proprietors, but attached to their estates. On the contrary, the region where the agricultural strikes broke out was one of vine culture which depended upon the help of the poor inhabitants of the neighboring mountains. These people descend from their mountains and hire themselves out for the wine season or rather by the year. But they are veritable mercenaries not attached to the country by any interest. In order to understand the situation, the report of M. Ange-Laribe should be read, published in the *Memoires* of the Musée Social (November, 1903).

The sharing (partage) system of 1848 had resulted in making socialism popular in the country. This consisted in dividing the large bourgeois estates, each peasant taking a share and in addition keeping the piece of ground he possessed and to which he was attached as the serf to the glebe. At this period one farm servant would beat another because, having been longer in the employ of an estate, he desired the field the other also desired to have. But the socialism of to-day no longer suits the peasant, jealous of his liberty and of his little domain. "*Son verre n'est pas grand; mais il boit dans son verre.*" ("His glass is not large; but he drinks from his glass.") Agricultural strikes can not, therefore, grow in France, a country of small farms, any more than can collectivism.

We come now to another very extraordinary strike, that of mariners owners of their own barges, often having no other assistant or employee than the members of their own families and striking—against whom? Against the intermediaries, here the freighters who agree to procure the freight, receiving a commission and organizing the traffic of the canals which carry from the North to Paris all the heavy merchandise, especially coal. It is owing to them that Paris has a river traffic larger than the traffic of the ports of Marseilles or Havre. The freighters reduce the price of freight as much as possible to please their industrial and commercial customers. This is done to such a point that the mariners, who can make but three or four trips a year from Lens to Paris, barely earn enough to exist with their nomadic families. The mariners would like to suppress the intermediaries, communicate directly with the commercial and industrial interests and fix the price at a toll of 5fr. 50 for the fine days of summer and of 6 francs for the winter, when the days are short and ice and snow prevent the working of the boats and of canal horses. Thus it stands: because of their nomadic life, the boatmen are not organized; for the same reason they are not educated and their children are prevented from attending the schools. They are thus largely at the mercy of the intermediaries.

II. THE SUPPRESSION OF THE BUREAU OF EMPLOYMENT.

The two chambers have agreed to the optional suppression of the Bureau of Employment by the Communes with an indemnity to the tenant. The Chamber had voted for an obligatory suppression, but the Senate refused to vote this.

Nevertheless, as a matter of fact, the suppression is imposed, for the workmen and employees in the food trade have brought their influence to bear on the municipal bodies of the great cities (there are no employment bureaus for the food trade in any but the large cities) to obtain this suppression. In fact, the municipality of Paris has already bought back all the employment bureaus for the food trade.

January 1, 1904, there were 2,948 societies of employees, 4,227 of workmen, and 151 mixed, with a respective aggregation of 236,819; 715,576 and 36,044. Employees' societies gained during the year 31,356 members; workingmen's unions 71,819.

Agricultural societies amounted to 2,761 with 649,514 members.

Finally, there were 111 industrial exchanges grouped into 2,121 and 335,201 societies.

III. POLITICS.

Have the municipal elections of May, 1904, changed the situation of the Socialist party? No. In Paris the National party, which was master of the municipality (a very feeble majority, it is true), was beaten, and the new Municipal Council is composed of 24 Socialists (9 Jauresistes, and Independents, 4 Allemanistes, 3 Revolutionary Socialists), 20 Radicals and Radical Socialists. In all, a majority of 44 against 36 Nationalists. Lyons is radical and socialist, St. Etienne and Toulon has been preserved for the Socialists. Dijon has been recaptured by them. Brest and Troyes belong to them.

But Lille has been taken from them, also Roubaix, "The Mecca of the Socialists," Armentieres, Marseilles, Bordeaux, Grenoble, Bourges, Nantes, Le Havre, and Montlucan.

Briefly, the Socialists have probably lost more than they have gained, even though the number of votes obtained by them has slightly increased.

And it is a curious fact to be considered; that after several years of a socialist government, the great cities repudiate them as though they had had enough of them.

Do the Socialists not make good managers? That is not the reason, for the citizen Dolory, Mayor of Lille, has proved himself a remarkable administrator. But they are too partisan and hasten to make room for their tools by throwing out all of the opposing element. Now a man that has been placed is only half satisfied and another that has been displaced is thoroughly discontented.

Upon the injunction of the International Congress at Amsterdam, the French Socialists tried again to unite their party.

Lost trouble. Never will Guesde and Vallant participate with Jauries.

The elected of the party, except the Jauresistes, must refuse the government every instrumentality which would assure the domination and the maintenance in power of the bourgeoisie. Some of the articles of the budget reveal a class interest (war and marine budgets, credit for colonial conquests, secret funds). Upon such questions, the Socialists must abstain from voting.

But will they abstain? The secret funds serve the elections and the Jauresistes are the official candidates.

VI. THE FRANCO ITALIAN LABOR TREATY.

This is one of the most important acts in the life of the nation. It is an introduction to internationalism. The labor laws apply to all neighboring people, of the same nature in the same way. Employers can no longer oppose the vote of the workingman under the pretext that it favors foreign competition. M. Fontaine the eminent Director of Labor for the Minister of Commerce has thus rendered a signal service to our International Association for the legal protection of workingmen.

THE GERMAN EMPIRE.

BY DR. ZACHER, PRESIDENT OF THE SENATE IN THE IMPERIAL INSURANCE DEPARTMENT AT BERLIN.

It was the special merit of the St. Louis Exposition of 1904 to have brought to a clear understanding two different basic views concerning the solving of the Social Problem. The one is rooted in the traditional conviction that only the greatest degree of liberty for the individual can produce and develop the most capable and best powers of the nation.

The other on the ground of contrary experience and in opposition to the *individualistic* doctrine, starts from the newer *social* conception, that the modern State is not to be looked upon as a conglomeration of individuals, but is to be regarded as a delicately articulated social organism and that therefore the solving of the social problem can only be an *organic* one and can not be allowed to be left to the "free play of force."

It is easily understood that the old tendency found its chief representation in the *New World* and the *New* tendency in the *Old World*. Therefore, while the American sections of the Exhibition palaces for Social Economy offered a rich abundance of extended attempts of reforms of all kinds by individuals, that is of single persons, firms, companies, associations, etc., they at the same time presented a picture of complete anarchy and therefore rather tended to confuse than to enlighten the ordinary visitor. If on the contrary the social political Exhibit of Germany, especially the "Deutsche Arbeiterversicherung" aroused so friendly and undivided an interest, it was probably due to the fact, that even a cursory glance permitted each beholder to recognize at once in it a reform on a grand scale, governed by a uniform fundamental idea and whose aim is the prosperity of the whole nation. And yet how rarely one meets a *correct understanding* of this movement.

People, especially in America, mistake the German Workingman's insurance for a State insurance, not only introduced by the State, but carried on, supported and administered by it; a system forced upon the people, practicable only in military drilled and law-respecting Germany, but which stifles every free initiative, every personal responsibility and which must finally lead to the degeneration and impoverishing of the whole nation; finally for a thoroughly *unsuccessful* system, because the Social reconciliation—the real object of the whole—has not at all been attained. So many assertions, so many errors!

Even a superficial study of the system should show by the action of the Reichstag that it is the fruit of the *unanimous will of the whole nation*.

The coercion of the law only shapes the *external form* of the organization. The social bodies created by it (sick funds, accident, trades, invalid, insurance institutions) are self-governing, with employer and workman placed on the ground of a *common organization and complete equal rights* as two parts belonging together of the national production, thus furnishing the developing seeds of further social progress, especially of an organic solving of the strike question, a higher guarantee for a thriving continuance of the social reform. The institutions above named have been called a *social political school for the whole nation*.

The leading position which Germany takes in consequence of this workmen's insurance shows especially in the realm of prophylactics and therapeutics, accident preventing and accident healing, the combatting of consumption, of alcoholism, of sex diseases and diseases of the people by means of self-created and special organizations; accident stations and accident hospitals, consumptive hospitals, convalescent homes, soldiers' homes; forest recruiting places, nursing stations; inebriate asylums, asylums for sex diseases. These show that "free initiative" has been by no means weakened but has been materially strengthened, because it had at its disposal the means and the power in unlimited measure, from the coöperation of the obligatory and the

voluntary organizations, and is capable of far greater achievements than in those countries where such powerful (compulsory) bodies are wanting and where everything must be laboriously organized. If the whole nation had not been impregnated with socialistic views such far-reaching and rapid progress would have been impossible.

Add to this that the social statistics secured through the workingmen's insurance—and without legislative force statistics of such comprehensiveness, reliability and continuity cannot be secured—have formed the necessary foundations for a social progress which has branched out in all directions. We will name here only the housing investigation of the sick benefit department—penetrating the very deepest shadows of the people's life and so furnishing private initiative and voluntary aid with new stimulus and new problems to solve.

All these individual efforts do not fritter away as they do in other countries, or overlap, but find abiding support in the whole social organization.

The workingmen's insurance is reproached with failure to establish social peace, to bring about a reduction of Social Democratic votes, but it must not be overlooked that the problems involved can not possibly be solved in a day. Germany stands only on the threshold of social reform. But already there are unmistakable signs of a beneficent reaction of the social-political legislation upon the lives of the broad masses. This was frankly acknowledged at the last International Socialist congress held at Amsterdam, August, 1904, and since the foremost thinkers in Germany look upon the systematic progress of social reform as the principal object of our times it must necessarily follow that every step forward will bring Germany nearer to social peace.

A nation capable of such achievement and development, can not possibly be on the road to degeneration and poverty.

On the contrary, if the German laborer, who formerly was regarded as of little value, can to-day compete with any other workingmen in the world, and has thereby contributed no small share to Germany's surprising advancement, this is to be attributed mainly to social legislation, scarcely existing in other countries.

This is not the place to draw comparisons between the German and foreign system, the purpose was simply to pave the way for a correct estimation and right comprehension.

It is not saying too much, however, that the modern social ideas, in the European sense, are in general still wholly unknown to the American business world—employing and employed. Their promoters can at present only be found among representatives of universities and in the Institute for Social Service, which, though doing such marvelous work in the dissemination of ideas, no millionaire has so far been wise enough to endow.

We may think about the individual principle of liberty with its heartless "help yourself," as we please; the facts speak *not* in their favor.

It is no healthy liberty that gives excessive power to a few and leaves all the rest powerless. It is no healthy state of political economy when the population consists of a few extraordinarily wealthy people and millions who possess nothing. It is no healthy social or economic condition when industrial magnates give millions for universities, hospitals, and other similar purposes, but show no interest in the welfare of their own workingmen; when on the contrary, in their own gigantic plants they allow human labor to be pressed to the utmost; when for the protection of life and limb not even the most primitive protective measures are employed, when in cases of mortal or other serious injury not a cent of indemnity is paid, when workingmen over 45 years old are barred out; when the authorities take no notice of such things or when the laws are merely on paper and not enforced.

If in Germany the opposite of all this is true, it is the visible result of the "German system," which found its embodiment in the social legislation of the German empire.

SOCIAL PROGRESS

GREAT BRITAIN.

BY SIDNEY WEBB, OF THE LONDON COUNTY COUNCIL AND EDWIN R. PEASE, SECRETARY OF THE FABIAN SOCIETY.

GENERAL POLITICS.

Last year we reported on the dramatic irruption of Protectionism into the hitherto peaceful pool of British Fiscal Policy, on the agitation over the Education Acts, the change in Trade Union Law, and the rise of the Labor Representation Movement.

The year 1904 has witnessed no such striking developments in social or political affairs. The Conservative Party, momentarily broken up by the new propaganda of "Fiscal Reform," has partly recovered from the shock; some of its members have definitely joined the Liberal opposition, others have announced that they will retire from politics at the General Election, and a still larger section of the malcontents have been forced by their constituents and by the exigencies of party pressure, to fall into line with the majority. What the line of the majority may be is, however, still uncertain. But as no one of them anticipates that after the coming election they will retain power and office, the precise character of their policy is not of the first importance.

THE LIBERAL PROGRAM.

Meanwhile the Liberals are gaining ground at nearly every bye-election, and are busily considering who shall be premier, and how he will constitute his ministry on the morrow of the victory.

This certainty of victory has enabled the Liberal party to appear before the country on an almost plankless platform. Any promise of reform means, it is calculated, some votes to be lost and none to be gained. The traditional rôles of the two parties have been for the moment exchanged. The Conservatives are all for measures which they regard as reforms; the Liberals for the *status quo*, or even for the *status quo ante*.

The only ostensible program of the Liberals consists primarily in opposition to any "reforms" of our fiscal system. That stands first. Second comes a general opposition to the changes now rapidly taking place under the recent Education Acts, an opposition which can only resolve itself, when the time comes, into a measure for increasing the control of the local governing authority over the religious education given in the "non-provided" public elementary schools (corresponding to the "parochial" schools of the United States), the buildings of which are still owned by trustees, representing the sects which founded them, who, by appointing two-thirds of the "managers," retain some control over the schools by their right to select the teachers.

Three measures brought in by the Conservative Government during the past year afford the Liberals three other "negative" planks for their platform.

ALIEN IMMIGRATION.

An unworkable project for preventing the immigration of undesirable aliens must appear to most Americans as a quite ordinary measure. It was, however, a departure from modern English traditions, and, as such, was opposed by nearly all the Liberal party, though working-class opinion was by no means wholly hostile to it. The bill broke down in the Grand Committee under the attacks of its critics, and was withdrawn.

THE LICENSING ACT.

A more important measure was the Licensing Act, which, being a short and simple plan, was the only bill of first-class importance which the Government succeeded in carrying during the whole session. In the limits of a short article a measure so intimately connected with the complex English Liquor Licensing system cannot be fully explained. Roughly speaking, the purpose of the Act is to prevent the local Justices of the Peace from refusing the usual renewal of any license merely on the ground that it is no longer required, unless they pay compensation to the license-holder; and to empower them to raise a fund for this compensation out of a tax on all the other current licenses in the county.

The Government contended that this arrangement, whilst preventing "injustice" to licensees, who by custom, though not by actual law, had acquired a "vested interest" in their licenses, would permit a reduction in the number of liquor shops on a much larger scale than had hitherto been possible, because Justices had usually declined to decrease the number of licenses, even when admittedly excessive, owing to the injury inflicted on the license-holders selected for suppression, who were no more to blame for the excess than the rest.

The more moderate temperance reformers had admitted that some measure of compensation was politically necessary and had demanded that the funds should be raised by a new tax on the trade itself. This demand the bill completely satisfied. The main point of contention was the absence of a time-limit after which no compensation should be paid. It was argued that by giving five or seven years' notice to license-holders that the state would cease to recognize their prescriptive right to renewal, the claims of justice would be amply met. The Prime Minister contended that the time limit was not germane to the bill, as it provided no new or alternative method of licensing, and there was no reason why after five or seven years the beneficent scheme of reducing the number of licenses at the expense of the remaining license-holders should cease. It may quite possibly prove that the most important innovation in the bill—one quite overshadowed by the compensation proposal—is the tentative and experimental introduction of the High License plan, hitherto unknown in England. The Justices in future "may attach to the grant of any new license such conditions as to payments to be made and as to tenure of the license as they think proper in the interests of the public, and in any case these conditions must provide for the securing to the public of the monopoly value."

The present writers are not in complete accord as to the weight of the rival contentions, and we can, therefore, only record that the Government carried their bill in spite of prolonged opposition, and thus added another item to their unpopularity in the opinion of most Liberals.

CHINESE LABOR.

The introduction of Chinese labor into the Transvaal is the third unpopular measure of the past session. Any explanation of the exception taken to it would be superfluous to American readers. The position of the Government is that the mine-owners of the Transvaal demanded it, and that public opinion amongst both English and Boers in the Transvaal was overwhelmingly in its favor, though they declined the proposal to submit this opinion to the test of a referendum. It must be remembered that the Transvaal is still under the provisional "Crown Colony" government, which is not and does not profess to be representative save in a very imperfect manner. The power of the wealthy capitalists to manufacture public opinion, in the form of public meetings, articles in the newspapers that they own, and petitions signed by their employees need not be explained to Americans.

Notwithstanding all deductions on these heads, it seems only too probable that the white population of the Transvaal was on the whole favorable to the introduction of Chinese labor, and if this is so—retrograde and detrimental as we believe it to be—it may be urged as some justification, on Liberal and Home Rule principles, for the refusal of the home Government to veto the project. Nevertheless, "Chinese labor" did much harm to the Government. Serious people strongly objected to the complication of the race problem by the introduction of another element into a land already shared by English and Boers, by Kaffirs of various tribes, and by natives of Hindustan who form an appreciable proportion of the inhabitants, especially in Natal. More popular objections were raised to the indenture and compound system, which was called slavery, and it was urged that the South African war was fought in order to open the Transvaal freely to white labor, and not to enable mine-owners to employ Chinese "slaves." Some of the gold magnates, too, were unwise enough to say that they did not want a white proletariat with votes, and white workmen with trade unions, who would disturb the peace of their operations on the gold fields.

THE COUNTY COUNCIL AND THE LABOR PARTY.

The Chinese Labor ordinance, which was under discussion at the time of the London County Council election, did not a little to assist the progressive party to return to power with an undiminished and overwhelming majority, though of course, the question was wholly irrelevant to this purely municipal election. Meantime, the Labor Representation Committee, and the Labor party formed by it has made steady progress in consolidating its ranks and extending its influence throughout the industrial centres (though less in London than elsewhere) and some of the obstacles which a year ago loomed large across its path now seem less threatening and formidable.

UNEMPLOYMENT.

The oncoming of winter has caused a revival of the agitation for the relief of the unemployed.

Although foreign trade continues to show monthly increases, and railway traffics are scarcely less than a year ago, the official returns of unemployment published in October gives 6.8 per cent. out of work of the 575575 Trade Unionists making returns: this is 1 per cent. above last year, and over 2 per cent. worse than the average of the past ten years. At the same time, wages show frequent, if small, decreases though strikes and lockouts continue on a very small scale, only 13,916 work people having been concerned in disputes in the United Kingdom during September.

The Government has shown considerable concern in regard to this subject, and the President of the Local Government Board has taken action in London, in a manner heretofore unprecedented, forcibly urging the Boards of Guardians and Borough Councils to coöperate in forming committees to adopt general measures of relief.

Unfortunately, only very partial palliatives have yet been discovered for the admitted evils, and little has yet been accomplished save the starting of certain farm colonies, chiefly as "tests" and reformatory institutions, which can afford employment to only a few out of the tens of thousands who ask for work.

Unless some improvement in trade takes place, an event hardly possible before the spring, the number of unemployed and the resultant distress is likely to become a serious national problem towards the end of the winter. There is, however, a belief among some good judges, that trade is showing signs of distinct improvement.

FEEDING SCHOOL CHILDREN.

The increase of poverty in large towns, the growing interest in education, and a new feeling of alarm lest the race be deteriorating, have combined to bring to the front the old absurdity of trying to teach starving children in the elementary schools. Sir John Gorst, recently the Minister of Education in the House of Commons and now Conservative free lance, has interested himself in the movement, which has attracted considerable attention.

The merging of the separate school authority in the municipality under the recent acts has somewhat simplified the problem, and it is possible that one or other of the large provincial towns (Municipal Corporations) may presently institute a system of supplying food to the school children, without legal authority. As the municipal accounts (outside London) are not subject to audit by the Local Government Board, such a proceeding is possible. It could, however, be stopped by any ratepayer taking legal proceedings. It is not unlikely that in the near future the attempt to find legislative sanction for the proposal may be successful in a tentative and restricted form.

The interest in this problem has been quickened by the popular agitations over an alleged

NATIONAL RACE DETERIORATION.

The publication of startling statistics of the physical condition of children in elementary schools in Scotland, the increase of insanity (or at any rate of the number of persons of unsound mind kept in asylums at public expense), the reduction in the minimum standard of size for recruits in the army, the publication of Mr. Seeböhm Rowntree's remarkable volume on "Poverty" in York, and other similar facts have called public attention to this danger. On the whole, all that the evidence seems to prove is that the environment in many populous centres is very bad, and that the children brought up in unhealthy surroundings, with insufficient food and air, by parents ignorant of the simplest hygienic laws, are of inferior mental and physical development. But the best judges doubt whether these conditions are growing worse, although possibly the population subject to them is increasing both actually and relatively, because the towns are growing, whilst the rural population is stationary or actually decreasing. On the other hand, wages in all trades have for many years past tended to rise, notwithstanding the recent set-back; statistics prove that urban overcrowding is diminishing to a marked extent, and the increased consumption of relative luxuries per head of population must mean an increase of wellbeing amongst the largest class.

But there is abundant room for improvement, and we cannot help regarding as one of the most hopeful signs of the times, the distinct progress made in the idea that it is the primary business of government, whether national or local, to secure proper conditions for the race, not only as necessary to preserve it from the deterioration brought about by individualism and *laissez faire* but also as calculated to promote the physical, mental and moral progress of the community toward higher things.

HOLLAND.

BY DR. D. C. ENDT, DELFT, HOLLAND.

The advance of trade-unionism in Holland, as well as a greater interest in political matters among the working class, has notably furthered the social movement during the last thirty years in Holland.

Government has been stimulated to give full attention to workmen's institutions and their regulations, and industrial authorities, more and more aware of their moral responsibility toward their laborers, have coöperated toward considerable improvements in the social conditions of factory workmen.

What Government has achieved during that period of thirty years is laid down in the following laws and regulations:

1875: the law regulating governmental supervision over establishments, which may cause danger, damage or hindrance (Hindrance Act).

1876: the Coöperative Associations Act.

1881: the law regulating the retail sale of liquors (Temperance Act).

1889: regulations to protect adults and women against excessive and dangerous labor (Labor Act).

1895: regulations to provide safety in factories and workshops (Safety-Provision Act).

1896: law regulating the supervision of steam-engines (Steam Act).

1897: Chambers of Labor Act.

1900: Workmen's Dwellings Act.

1901: Workmen's compensation in case of Accidents (Accidents Compensations Act).

Since, with the exception of a remodelled temperance act, no social law of importance has been introduced. This new temperance act is based on the same principles as the old one, viz., a license system to sell liquors on retail; licenses granted by local government, the number of which licenses is limited by law. The difference between the old and the new law is, that, whereas the old one called retail all liquor sales in quantities of less than 2 litres, the new one establishes a limit of 10 litres. Another difference is that the new law grants a license to sell on retail either in bottles to consume outdoors, or in glasses to consume on spot. The number of licenses to be granted is the same as in the old law; thus both differences result in diminishing the present number of bars and saloons.

The individualism of the Hollander, living on commerce and navigation, and the low industrial development in Holland may be considered the reason why Government takes so slowly to social matters, which necessarily must be of a general character and principally concern factory workmen. Therefore, the directors of various factories initiated social institutions on behalf of their laborers. We may point, as an example in the direction of industrial social organization, to the Netherlands Yeast and Spirit Factory, joined in social matters by the Netherlands Franco-Dutch Oil Works; Calvé-Delft New Works, and by the Glue and Gelatine Factory, all at Delft. The directors of these factories endeavor to further as well the material interests as the intellectual and moral development of their laborers. For material interests in normal circumstances of life an ingenious system of wages to encourage thrift, savings-banks and grocery, haberdashery and clothing stores, all on cash terms, were instituted; sanitary provision and appliances for safety in their factories, workmen's dwellings, refreshment rooms, baths, and a fire brigade are provided. In case of sickness and accidents they allow full pay during eight weeks or until recovery; at old age a retiring pension, at the age of 60, is granted, in case of death an insured capital as well as a widow's fund support the relations. To help intellectual and moral development, there are a kindergarten, a school of manual work, knitting and sewing classes for laborers' children, a course for apprentices and for junior clerks, musical societies and a band, meetings, lectures, exhibitions, public libraries, a reading room and circulating portfolios of periodical publications. Besides places of recreation like the Agneta Park, the Villa, the summer casino called "Tent," the Community building and a gymnasium. To promote social understanding there is a representation of labor, called "the Kernel," consisting of delegates of the lower, middle and higher employees; and a weekly paper is published called "the Factory Mes-

senger." When, in 1903 and 1904, the new Accident Compensation Act assured to the laborer, to whom an accident happened, 70 per cent. of his wages, to be paid by a National Insurance Bank, some modifications had to be made in the existing regulations, and the directors of these factories made a supplementary regulation, by which, in case of an accident, the laborer gets his full wages during the time of infirmness on account of the accident.

A similar social organization exists in the machine factory of the firm of Stork Brothers & Co., at Hengelo. There are funds in case of sickness, in case of invalidity, a widow's fund and an orphan's fund, retiring pensions, all providing means in moment of need. As sanitary, intellectual and recreative provisions, may be mentioned refreshment rooms, baths, a savings-bank, schools, reading-rooms, a library and meetings.

In the year 1904 the directors made a trial with the suggestions system, granting prizes to workmen who invent improvements connected with their work.

Coöperation of capital in form of trusts, as well as of labor in form of productive associations, is but poorly developed, and consumptive coöperation, though more flourishing, is still in the beginning. Still we may mention as examples of productive coöperation of capital, several agricultural associations of farmers for the manufacture of butter and cheese; of labor, the Society Van Marken's Printing Works at Delft, where, after ten years of existence, the shares have become the property of labor in its different forms (management, hand-labor, control). For consumptive coöperation the Society "Self-Help," managing several grocery stores in The Hague, Amsterdam and other cities is noteworthy. In the course of this year a great consumptive coöperative society was established on behalf of the railway men of the Dutch Railway Company, an immediate result of the railway strike of 1903.

Charitable and philanthropical work in this country are of a private nature. Associations with different tendencies exist in nearly every locality: lecture halls for workmen, food and clothing for children, dwellings for old servants, etc. Examples of these societies are the Society "Charity according to Means" and "Meals for Children" at Amsterdam.

Especially in the last few years several associations similar to those at Ghent and Bale insure workmen against the consequences of being out of work. These associations, however, cannot exist without the support of charity.

Education formerly was entirely in the hands of the church; during the last thirty years Government has taken charge of the education of the people and at first did not support private and church schools. The last few years, however, have brought a clerical government, successful in establishing a law, supporting private and clerical universities, which law met with a fierce but fruitless opposition of the Liberal party.

Among the associations with a general educational purpose are most noteworthy the various Toynbee societies for university extension, especially in university towns. As to industrial education we may mention in the city of Amsterdam the museum of Protective Appliances against danger in factories, where various provisions to prevent accidents can be seen. For the promotion of social education Amsterdam may boast of an Institute of Social Advice—an institute with a purpose similar to that of the American Institute of Social Service—and also of its Class for Education in Social Work.

Finally, we may mention the important social work, done in the course of this year by the Committee of Inquiry, instituted by Government's resolution after the railway strike of 1903. Its task is to investigate the social position of railway employees. It was able to ascertain that many complaints of the workmen were just and that generally speaking the position of the men was unsatisfactory.

In this year an important strike, which lasted four months, of the employees in the diamond industry at Amsterdam, and a strike in the bottle-factories, which lasted three months, were terminated by reconciliation.

HUNGARY.

By Professor Mandello, Possony, Collaborator of the American Institute of Social Service.

Politics.—The year 1903 was fully occupied with rather sterile politics. The Government of Count Tissa aimed at a reform of the rules of the House of Deputies, making obstruction entirely impossible and introducing the cloture especially for the discussion of the budget. As regards the principle of the reform all parties agree, but not as to the methods. Besides this, the opposition puts the condition that any reform of the rules of the House, ought to be corrected by a reform of the law of voting, as nowadays only a small fraction of the population have a right to vote. Undoubtedly such a reform would increase the working capacity of the House; but the opposing parties fear that the power of the majority increased by such a measure would be used for imposing laws of heavy military burdens and of economic measures favoring Austrian interests and harming the Hungarian ones and making forever impossible the introduction of an independent Hungarian tariff policy towards Austria. Such a reform of the law of voting was promised by Count Tissa, but he has never declared to what a degree he would extend the right of voting, and, as many governments before him have done, he does not seem at all anxious to fulfil his promise. The extension of the right to vote naturally affects the large masses of the population and is especially the chief demand of the Social-Democrats and of organized labor. The pressure of these, naturally influences the various parties of the opposition, although these latter do not include any number of the Socialists or the labor party. These parties of opposition have not yet clearly pronounced for a general (and secret) vote of the adult male population, still all of them—amongst them, Count Apponzi—favor a certain extension of the right to vote. Under these general political conditions, the Government tried on November 18th, with the aid of a willing president of the House, to secure the reform of the rules of the House by a "coup." On this date, a proposition of such a reform was declared by the president of the House as carried, although the vote itself was entirely against the rules of the House. This "coup" has brought about all the political trouble from which Hungary now suffers. The various formerly antagonistic parties of the opposition united in combating the Government; the sittings of the House were made impossible, the most preëminent leaders of the opposition—Count Apponzi and Franz Kossuth—declared that they would not consider any law binding, which originated under such an unlawful ruling; eminent members of the government (Liberal) party—amongst them Count Andrassy—have joined the opposition; the condition of a restoration of the peace is the withdrawal of the cabinet and the president of the House. Count Tissa, on the other hand, who still has a majority of about 40, decided to dissolve the House in January, 1905, although this will be another unlawful act, as no budget, or indemnity for 1905 has yet been voted and the laws of 1848 and 1867 prohibit the dissolution of the House in such a case. Under these chaotic conditions a forecast of the future is impossible. In the long run, however, a defeat of the cabinet seems probable, and it is also likely that the question of the extension of the right to vote will become a more and more important one, thus increasing the interest and the influence of Socialists and organized labor.

Socialism and Labor Organizations.—The Social-Democratic party of Hungary is certainly gaining in influence. Since 1903 a new organization of the party especially with regard to the autonomy of district branches has resulted in an increase of the revenues from 100–150 per cent. A general meeting was held on April 3d, 665 representatives attending against 234 in 1902 and 349 in 1903. The revenues amounted to 134,000 crowns against 43,000 in 1902 and 60,000 in 1903; the number of communities represented in 1903 was 277 against 86 in

1902 and 165 in 1903. The general meeting decided to establish a platform of agrarian—and of municipal—socialism, beside their agitation for the general and secret right to vote and the Socialistic propaganda. The Social-Democratic party recruits itself chiefly amongst the industrial laborers and in an "international Socialistic" party. Besides this party there is another Social-Democratic party, which chiefly recruits itself amongst agricultural laborers and the non-Hungarian rationalists; this party also held a conference, where 104 communities were represented. Since 1904, a new party, the Christian laborers, are also gaining influence, having formed in October, a federation of all Christian labor unions; this party is rather opposed to the International Social-Democracy. The so-called "National Labor Party" seems to be entirely losing ground. But the greatest advance is with the trade unions, who in 1904 have established a central organization. The report of the first six months shows 52,000 members against 14,000 in 1902. They publish 21 periodical papers with 61,000 copies. In 1903, the income was 273,000 crowns, the expenditure 201,000, out of this 87,000 for the unemployed. The unions are nearly all Social-Democratic. It is not to be forgotten that although Hungary even now is chiefly an agricultural country, nearly all these organizations reach only the industrial laborers.

This does not mean, however, that there is not a very important agrarian labor question in this country. In 1894 there were very dangerous riots in the heart of Hungary which led to strong repressions and to a special legislation, especially in 1898. Also in the first half of 1904 there were strong agrarian movements in the Servian and Roumanian districts, repressed, however, by a governmental action making meetings impossible, and by a number of prosecutions against the Socialistic press.

Strikes and Lockouts.—There were a number of strikes in 1904, amongst them those of the tailors, smiths, carpenters, building laborers, flour mill workers, bookbinders in Budapest, coal miners in Annavölgy, etc. As there is, however, no Bureau of Labor in Hungary, no trustworthy statistics or analysis of them may be given. The attitude of the authorities was rather against the strikers, still several of the strikes ended with a victory for the latter. In connection with strikes several trade-unions were dissolved by the Government. The question of strikes was discussed by the Chamber of Commerce and Industry of Budapest, and several propositions were made with reference to a bill on strikes etc.

Industrial Betterment.—There are of course many instances of such in the private enterprises as well as in the great industrial, mining and railway enterprises of the State. But in 1904 no new facts were published, and a general account of industrial betterment is impossible as the data included in the reports of factory inspections are not satisfactory at all.

A Social Museum in Budapest was founded by the Government in 1901, and contains chiefly those collections of books, monographs and models which were to be seen at the International Exhibition of 1900 in Paris. The program of the Social Museum is quite an exhaustive one. But no sufficient funds are provided and no competent staff appointed (the director living in another town). The spreading of knowledge on economics and Social Science still lies with the Hungarian Economic Association and the Society of Social Science; in connection with this latter there is also a branch of the International Federation of the Legal Protection of Workingmen.

Coöperation. In September, the International Federation of Coöperation held its congress in Budapest. The congress voted against State aid to coöperation. In Hungary there are chiefly credit and consumers' coöperations; the coöperation of producers is very rare. The chief organization of consumers' coöperation, Hangya, included, in 1903, 383 coöperative societies with 64,000 members, 1,500,000 crowns of capital, 9,000,000 of traffic and about 250,000 of profits.

The Christian coöperative societies were 275 in 1903, with 41,000 members and about 5,000,000 crowns of traffic. A bill on coöperation was prepared, which ought to prevent abuses and change the legal aspects of coöperation.

Trusts.—No reliable statistics are available on *Kartells*, the European form of trusts, in Hungary. But a bill was prepared which would involve publicity and State control.

Emigration.—Although there are yet no figures available for 1904, it seems obvious that emigration in this year has rather increased than decreased. The working of the new laws on emigration can not yet be judged, but as they chiefly touch only the regulation of the traffic, their effect will probably be only a formal one. By the agreement of the great steamship companies, to which the Hungarian Government adhered, the monopoly given formerly to the Cunard Line was repealed.

Publications.—Amongst important publications touching economic and social topics we should mention a volume published by the ministry of finance on local taxation; several volumes published by the ministry of commerce on the reform of the law of industries, the Sunday rest, the report on factory inspection of 1903, the promoting of industries, and, perhaps the most important one, the statistics of the census of 1900, dealing with the occupations of the population. We quote some figures of the latter, which may throw some light on the social conditions of Hungary:

Population engaged in agriculture, etc. 68.4 per cent (72.5 per cent. in 1890).

The agricultural population includes 6,000,000 of earners and 7,119,000 supported.

Agricultural laborers as shown separately, 1,459,000 as earners and 1,680,000 as supported.

The individual population includes 897,000 males, 179,000 females, together, 1,077,000. Amongst these 381,000 independent, 695,000 employed.

Industrial and mining enterprises giving occupation to 20 or more employed, were 2,261 with 230,641 employed. These figures are in harmony with the statistics of industrial productions published in 1898. All these figures show evidently the agricultural character of Hungary, though a slight decrease of this is noteworthy.

AUSTRIA AND HUNGARY.

We printed, last year, a report on Austria and this year report on Hungary. They are really separate and individual countries. Of the social movement in Austria last year Dr. Exnor said:

The labor question has practically and theoretically been put somewhat into the background by the reawakening of a general interest in the welfare of the industrial middle classes (*Mittelstandspolitik*). Moreover, the legislation on questions concerning the welfare of labor employed in large manufacturing establishments has, already in the eighties of the last century, led to fundamental laws being passed, viz: on the insurance of workmen against accidents and lasting invalidation and against temporary illness. Germany has, it is true, added to two similar laws a third one on old age pensions for workmen, and has thereby nearly solved a problem which will have to be brought up for consideration as soon as possible in Austria also. Nevertheless this country, even through its present laws and these matters alone, is rather ahead—Germany excepted—of the other European countries and perhaps not less of England and the United States. Certainly the tendency for laws of this nature is not so strong in the new world ■■ in the old one.

INDIA.

BY DR. J. P. JONES, PASUMALAI, INDIA.

India is entering upon the added two years of Lord Curzon's administration. There is universal satisfaction in this extension of the Viceroyalty of, perhaps, the most distinguished statesman that has ever controlled the destinies of this great land. In an address of thrilling eloquence, His Excellency reviewed, in March last, the achievements of his government during the closing quinquennial of its life. A rehearsal of some of these will help us to measure India's most recent progress in several respects.

1. The fixity of exchange at one rupee to one shilling and four pence. This stability of the rupee has brought great relief to the finances of India.

2. The creation by the State of a Reserve fund of six and a half million sterling for the stability of its treasury. This fund now brings in an interest of £166,000 annually.

3. The revenue of the country has risen from £68,500,000 to £83,000,000.

4. There has been an average government revenue surplus of £3,000,000 beyond the expense.

5. This surplus existed notwithstanding the fact that the Salt and Income taxes were reduced by £1,400,000 annually.

6. The debt of the country has, indeed, increased by £16,000,000; but against this must be placed £20,000,000 expended upon railways and £2,750,000 upon irrigation works, all of which more than pays the interest upon the money invested.

7. The revenue from State railways has risen in these five years from £76,000 to £855,000—giving an average surplus of £466,000 annually.

8. Prosperity is indicated by an increase of private deposits in banks from £6,600,000 to £28,500,000, and Government paper held by the natives has nearly trebled.

This is certainly a notable financial record of which the Viceroy and his associates may well be proud.

During the same time no little educational progress has been made. India is still a land of ignorance in which not one-tenth of the population are literate. All but six out of every thousand women are analphabet.

The Imperial Government is ambitious to improve upon this situation. It had added 4,000,000 rupees annually to its grant for primary education, and purposes to do more. The five universities of India have been improved, and a new era of education seems to have been opened.

New efforts have been put forth for the development of the industries and the commerce of the land.

His Excellency takes special pride in work done upon the northern frontiers by which the wild and turbulent tribes have been pacified and the army in those regions has been materially reduced.

Much has been done to defend the country from possible dangers and incursions from the north. Notably the success of the Tibetan mission has closed that door to possible Russian intrigue and invasion. The present mission to Kabul will also doubtless help to cement the friendship of the American and the British.

Special effort has been made to develop the wonderful irrigation schemes, and the Imperial Government gave to the Provincial Government, during the last year, more than they were able to spend in this department. And it must not be forgotten that India is already far in advance of any other country in its artificial irrigation works and projects.

We hear much of "the Industrial Awakening" in India. And there is much to encourage one in this line. For several reasons, some of which are not creditable to Great Britain, India has descended to the lowest depth of industrial

apathy and stagnation. Not only is the present Government anxious to stir up new industrial ambitions in the minds of the people, but the people themselves are bestirring themselves in order to revive moribund industries and to introduce new ones on modern and scientific lines. A native organization of considerable promise and power was recently perfected in Bengal for this purpose. At this present time, Bombay is enjoying the finest industrial exhibition that the country has ever known. This is held under the special auspices of this National Congress and is encouraged by the State. For the development of this industrial spirit, fairs and model farms and technical schools are being conducted largely at the expense of the State. But it will take a long time before this people will take its place among the industrial nations of the earth.

Though profound as a thinker and rich in religious sentiment beyond most people, the Hindu is not and never has been distinguished in the arts or in general manual dexterity. He will never be able to compete in this particular with his more versatile and artistically bright Oriental cousin of Japan. And yet his present industrial backwardness is not so much a sign of incapacity as of unfortunate circumstances.

Politically, India is still a hope rather than an entity. Doubtless, no Eastern people which is subject to a Western power is ruled with so much of consideration as is India. There are not a few of the privileges of representative institutions enjoyed by the people. Both in municipal and in district government, popular representatives have large, if not dominant, influence. Even some of the members of the Provincial and Imperial legislative bodies are Indians elected by their own people. And, unfortunately, but naturally enough, the voters in all these cases have more quickly learned the tricks of politics than the solemn responsibilities of citizenship.

As a political influence the "National Congress" is not growing as it should. Its annual sitting will be in Bombay in Christmas week. As usual, it will give itself almost exclusively to a criticism of the acts of government. And in this criticism it will be neither judicious nor self-restrained. Its power has been considerably limited and its prestige in part lost by excess of denunciation and an inability to appreciate anything that the State has done. It is too much an open platform for demagogues and an opportunity for the disgruntled—a political Cave of Adullam. And yet it is in itself a marvellous illustration of what the British nation has done for India. To see thousands of the representatives of the many polyglot races of this land gathered together at one great centre and spending several days yearly in discussing and criticising in high-flown classical English the acts of a no mean modern government and in demanding for themselves political rights that most Western peoples vainly covet—this is the strangest sight in all the East. Imagine such a thing under Russian rule!

Socially, India is still the bondservant of Caste. And yet it is at this point that the people of the land are chiefly exercised at the present time. They themselves appreciate the strange incongruity of a people aspiring after political rights and privileges who are, nevertheless, socially the abject slaves of myriad customs, which are hoary with age and at war with modern conditions of life. Marriage laws and customs furnish the occasion for increasing conflict. It is here that the grossest injustice and the greatest unwisdom are found. While infant marriage is an unwritten law and widow remarriage an impossibility, the growing modern spirit will struggle for change. Recently Native States have, under enlightened Native Rules, tried to shake off this bondage. First, Mysore took the lead and enacted a modified law against infant marriage. The Gaikwar of Baroda, perhaps the most progressive Native Ruler, recently followed suit and has secured the enactment of a law in his kingdom raising the marriageable age of girls to twelve. This seems mean enough from the Western standpoint, but it is reform to the verge of radicalism in India, where it is not an uncommon thing for a babe in arms to be, not betrothed, but really and relentlessly married.

This same Maharajah of Baroda is to give the opening address at the annual Social Conference of all India this year, and his presence and words will add much to the reform movement which the Conference represents. It will be a happy day for India when all her native princes will array themselves, as a few of them now do, on the side of reform and modern progress. Hitherto, they have been among the most unprogressive and reactionary people in the land.

The plague is still spreading with ominous persistency throughout the land. The extreme southern part of the peninsula is the only region thus far uninfected, and this seems early doomed to become a victim to its ravages. More than three millions have perished by this fell disease since it began its course of destruction in India eight years ago. Medical skill seems no better prepared to cope with it to-day than it did then, and its ravages are increasing in this land.

And while there is not much actual famine in the country at the close of this year the partial failure of the recent monsoon has brought much distress to millions of the people. So long as they are, even in normal times, the victims of penury and live each day upon its most meagre earnings they cannot be expected to stand the stress of drought. The failure of one shower often means to the Hindu the loss of a meal a day for months. And yet, with all this ghastly picture of want and suffering, India is really growing increasingly wealthy, as the above quoted figures show. And the new law establishing village banks under government auspices and guidance will help the common people and save many of them from financial bankruptcy and ruin.

IRELAND.

BY THE RT. HON. SIR HORACE PLUNKETT, F.R.S.

From a statement issued by the American Institute of Social Service and dated September 7 and 14, 1904, I take the following passage dealing with the proper conditions for successful "welfare-work":—

Paternalism should be as far as possible avoided. All classes of men prefer justice to favors and resent anything bordering on patronage. Employers are frequently disappointed at the lack of response and gratitude on the part of workmen to certain advantages conferred on them. Much, however, that a few years ago was given as a favor is now being demanded as a right, and justly so.

Looked at in the light of these ideas, thus admirably expressed, the Irish question presents a curious analogy to the relations which have prevailed at different times and in different places between capital and labor. At one period the British conception of Ireland seemed to be that it was a place whose human and material resources were of value and consequence solely to the extent to which they could be turned to account for the benefit of the sister country. When the exploitation of Ireland in the interests of England ceased to be the settled policy of the government a new industrialism, aided as it was by the sudden growth of facilities for mechanical production, supervened upon the mediæval systems of trade organization. Ireland was in no condition to profit by the so-called industrial revolution and, indeed, was the chief sufferer under it. A revulsion of feeling took place when the results of the policy became apparent, and when the great famine brought home the real condition of Ireland to the mind, now grown more generous and enlightened, of the British people. A new type of feeling toward Ireland now began to appear—"sympathy" was the dominant note of it, and the desire to extend "help" to poor, backward, ignorant Ireland became the characteristic attitude of a large and powerful section of English public men. This corresponds to the patronizing paternalism on the part of some employers referred to in the passage I have quoted. It did credit to those who practised it, and I should not like to dispute the allegation that some good for Ireland resulted from it. But it did not improve the national attitude of Ireland toward England any more than it improves the attitude of labor toward capital.

The final conception is now struggling into existence and is having a fierce, and, no doubt, wholesome conflict for the right to assert itself and to prevail.

It rejects the idea of help from the outside, except in so far as it aids us to help ourselves. It bids Ireland work out her own regeneration, and tells her that she has the means to do so. It rejects the absurd idea of "killing Home Rule by kindness," an idea so often mis-fathered upon those who would be the very last to entertain it, and holds up, instead, the ideal of uplifting Ireland by justice in the governors and manful effort on the part of the governed to the level on which alone Home Rule, or any other kind of rule, could be administered to the welfare of the country.

I have spoken of this conception as struggling to assert itself in Irish life. It is, indeed, a struggle. A people so long accustomed to be "ill-governed with now weak, now ruthless hand" and to console itself for the misgovernment by swallowing heroic ideas of "flattery's poisoned wine"—a people, above all, taught to believe in a millennium which would supervene on some legislative change in their external conditions, could hardly be expected to welcome with enthusiasm the cold doctrines of self-help and self-reliance, or to understand all at once the difference between the criticisms of a friend and the insults of an enemy. Nevertheless, the new doctrine is making headway; it is making it in the region of fact and practical life, and from thence it will inevitably come to influence the world of thought as well.

Those who guided the early efforts of the Irish people toward the achievement of a national regeneration from within did not greatly trouble themselves, or at any rate did not trouble their hearers about the speculative and theoretic side of their work, important as this side is, and necessary as it is that it should at some time be brought into due prominence. They set them to work. They bade them learn the secrets of coöperative action as applied to the affairs of their daily lives. They bade them enter the realm of business, and not leave it to strangers to exploit the results of the productive work of Irishmen. They bade them organize for productive purposes the credit arising from the assets of honesty and industry—intangible assets which cannot be lodged as security for a loan, but which, in many a poor district of the West, have, under the organization of a rural bank, proved to be capable of transforming themselves into hard cash and of putting capital, for the first time, within the reach of the small farmer. For ten years, without the slightest aid from any public source, this movement grew and spread, until at last the principle of self-help and enterprise seemed so firmly established that a State Department—*The Department of Agriculture and Technical Instruction*—could be called into existence to supply educational facilities and to evoke and supplement the progressive activities of the country, without any danger of its degenerating into an agency for the spoon-feeding of Irish industry.

It has often been asked, both by sympathetic and by hostile critics, "what has the Department done?" and I have been reproached for not having told more of what it has "done" in my recent book, "Ireland in the New Century." I think these critics, however sympathetic, sometimes miss the most vital feature in the constitution of the Department, a feature in which it marks a new departure in Irish administrative bodies. It is not in the main a Department for doing things, but for helping other people to do them. It would best fulfil its function, at least in respect of the most important of its many spheres of work, if it appeared on the surface to be doing nothing at all, so long as the things got done! Its constitution provides that it can undertake no scheme without the approval of two boards, one for agriculture and one for technical instruction, each of these composed, as regards two-thirds of its membership, of the representatives of the people, chosen from and by the elective councils, which exercise local government in rural and urban districts respectively. Furthermore, the schemes themselves, when adopted, are committed for their local supervision and execution to the same bodies. These bodies in coöperation with the Department, which has a general power of supervision and control, have most

wisely and prudently addressed themselves rather to laying a solid foundation for the future than to indulging the natural desire for immediate results by adopting showy schemes for promoting industrial enterprise before there was an industrial population to work them. In a word, their policy has been educational. In pursuance of that policy they have brought at least the elements of a technical and agricultural training within the reach of practically every young Irishman—an achievement of some importance when it is remembered that prior to 1900 facilities for technical and agricultural education could hardly be said to exist in the country. It is the young men thus trained who will begin to "do" things for Ireland, and the best justification of the Department would be that they should do them without official help.

ITALY.

BY PROF. RICCARDO BACHI.

In the election of June, 1900, after the bloody riots of 1898 and the Parliamentary struggle of 1899, the so-called popular parties (Radicals, Republicans, and Socialists) won 100 seats and overthrew a conservative cabinet. A transitional cabinet which came into power, however, was defeated before the end of the year in connection with the great Genoa strike. The semi-democratic Zanardelli-Giolitti cabinet was formed and the years 1901-2 were characterized by a great advance. Labor was free to organize—a new thing for Italy. A series of strikes, however, chiefly in the agricultural district, though usually without serious disturbances, continually raised in Parliament the question of the right to organize. The Cabinet was not able wholly to antagonize the Conservatives and was not always supported by the Democratic parties. The Socialists were divided as *Rivoluzionari* and *Riformisti*. The former openly attacked the Government. However, the Government carried bills regulating the labor of women and children, creating a Labor Bureau, on the municipalization of public services, on accidents in industry, old-age pensions, salaries of elementary teachers, of clerks in various branches of the civil service, pensions for workmen in the government tobacco manufactory. It enacted laws on public health, convict labor, coöperative societies, public works, a new penal law, a law reorganizing the municipal finances of Rome (with a rate on vacant land), progressive laws for various particular sections and trades, besides a remarkable law on charities. The main labor problems, however, the reduction of taxation for the laboring classes, divorce, the lowering of duties on corn, it feared to attempt. Radicals gradually gave the Government less support. Strikes developed. Last September a strike in Sardinia led to a collision with the troops and some strikers were killed. September 11 a mass meeting organized by the Chamber of Labor of Milan, which city is in the hands of the Revolutionary Socialists, summoned the working classes of all Italy to a universal strike. This broke out in almost all the large cities and many smaller ones, sometimes not extending to the public services, but sometimes affecting every class of the population. There were many collisions of troops with the strikers or more commonly with the lawless element who took advantage of the strike. The extent of the strike has never been equalled in Italy, perhaps not in the labor movement. It did not, however, endure, lasting in Milan only 5 days. It created a great reaction against the progressive parties, and the Government chose the opportunity to dissolve the Chamber of Deputies. In the ensuing November elections, the popular parties, were not united: in some places there were two Socialist candidates. The platform was the general strike and the Government took for its watchword "neither reaction nor revolution." A new element in the election was the participation in it of Catholic electors, who, in some places, even put up candidates of their own. This meant a new policy on the part of the Holy See. The alliance of Conservatives and Catholics, in sup-

port of the government hitherto anti-clerical and secular is an important change in the political history of Italy. The popular parties had increased suffrages in the elections, yet lost 15 seats. The message of the King on opening the Legislature confirmed the program of freedom and called for the legislation to protect workmen and promote arbitration and conciliation. It is hoped that the new Parliament, though more conservative than the old, will not be reactionary and will undertake the great problems of railway enactments, financial reform, and labor legislation.

LABOR ORGANIZATIONS.

There are in Italy two kinds of labor organizations, the *Federazioni* or *Legh di resistenza*, unions of the workmen in a trade, and the *Camere del Lavoro*, analogous to the Trades Councils of England and the *Gewerkschaftskartelle* of Germany, unions of workmen in a town. The *Federazioni* are more concerned with trade disputes and measures, the *Camere* with the more general questions affecting the laboring classes—coöperation, factory laws, popular education, mutual insurance, municipal action. The *Camere* often establish labor bureaus, and coöperative institutions. These organizations are guided by a *Segretariato centrale della resistenza*, with officers in Milan composed of three representatives of the *Camere*, three of the *Federazioni* and ten secretaries. In December, 1904, there were 77 *Camere*, some 33 of them, however, with only a nominal life. The *Federazioni* belonging to the *Segretariato* are 29 with a membership of 205,362. The clubs of the civil service of the cities are organized in 14 *Federazioni* with 110,000 members, and about 100 *Camere*. These unions support about 50 weekly, fortnightly or monthly papers.

Organizations of agricultural laborers have attained in Italy a greater importance than in any other country. They have played a large part in the rural strikes, and are at once the source and the result of a very important revival of rural life chiefly in Mantova, the Emilia and Romagna. They, too, are formed into a *Segretariato* with a membership of some 101,200, besides 60,000 more in local unions not adhering to the *Segretariato*. Among the *Federazioni* the more important are those of the railway men (56,000 members), building trades (24,000), metal trades (30,000), printers (9,000). Italian unions have not developed the benefit system except for strike benefits, while the hatters and printers give out-of-work benefits. The fifth national congress of the *Camere* and the third of the *Federazioni* met in Genoa, in January, 1905. Collective bargaining is increasing in Italy, even in agriculture, employers entrusting their fields to be cultivated by the unions.

Official statistics published in 1904 place the number of industrial strikes in the turbulent year of 1901 at 1,042 (nearly four times the average of the previous four years) with 196,540 strikers (18,468 women). 63 per cent. of the strikes were for increased wages, the aggregate duration was 2,146,184 days, 29 per cent. of the disputes were won by the men, 29 by the employers and 42 per cent. were compromised. The strikes won or partly won by the men were much more numerous than those won by the employers. Rural strikes were 12 in 1897, 36 in 1898, 9 in 1899, 27 in 1900 and 629 in 1901 (with 222,985 strikers) 72 per cent. of the disputes were for increased wages; 541 lasted less than 10 days; 44 per cent. were decided wholly and 36 per cent. partly in favor of the men. Unofficial figures put the industrial strikes at 780 in 1902 and 518 in 1903. Of these 54 and 101 were won by the men; 255 and 233 by the employers, and 350 and 183 were compromised. Rural strikes were 228 and 45, of which 35 and 8 were won by the men, 95 and 13 by the employers, and 95 and 23 compromised.

At the close of 1904 there were in Italy some 4,600 coöperative societies, of which 1,080 belonged to the coöperative alliance of Milan. During the year there were passed laws giving grants or other favors to develop coöperation in rural

districts, in wine and production, in fisheries, and making it easy for coöperative societies to undertake contracts for public works.

Among other steps in social progress in Italy were the formation in 1902 of a Superior Council of Labor and a Bureau of Labor. The former has held three sessions recommending various progressive measures, while the bureau has published reports on important questions.

A noteworthy event of the year was the convention signed April 15 between Italy and France, intended to secure to the laborers of both nations reciprocal guarantees analogous to those which commercial treaties provide for the products of labor.

MUNICIPAL PROGRESS.

Some Italian towns have overcrowding as bad as that of New York or London, and the last census showed that 8, 9, 10 or more persons were often crowded in a single room. Density of population and rents are increasing; in some cities there is a house famine. A law of 1903 favored cooperative building societies and loan associations. Municipal house building is agitated.

The increase of urban populations is forcing the municipalities to increase their functions. The municipalization of public services has become popular in all parties. An act of 1903 established the method of a popular referendum on the assumption of a public service, made it easier for municipalities to make loans for municipal activities, gave to the municipalities the right to repeal a contract for the concession of a public service, but created a very cumbersome machinery of central control of these measures, a control in which local interests are not represented. Among other activities is the establishment of municipal bakeries. Experiments in this line have been tried for some years, and the movement is now spreading in many cities. Two cities have established municipal butcheries. Other cities are creating municipal electric plants. Eight municipalities near Florence have devised a common automobile service. Municipal advertising, municipal wine cellars, are among other features. One great hindrance to such activities is an antiquated system of municipal taxation, though some progress has recently been made in taxing vacant areas.

An act of 1904 creates a somewhat remarkable central council and local councils, with inspectors, for the charities, of which Italy has a rich heritage, but some of which are antiquated in object and method. The provincial councils exercise direct supervision; the central council is advisory.

EMIGRATION.

Italy continues to be a great exporter of men, although there has been a diminution from 1903 to 1904, especially from Venetia, Campania and Albruzzi. In the first half of 1904, the emigration to European and Mediterranean ports was 139,408 and to transoceanic countries 145,392. In 1901 a Government Board was created, which licenses transporting companies who pay a surety and submit every four months to the board their charges, routes, dietaries, etc. Only such licensed companies can enroll emigrants and sell tickets. The board has inspectors and representatives in foreign ports whose duty it is to care for the interests of emigrants. There has been discussion of the Board's establishing agricultural colonies. Important in Italy is the temporary emigration to France, Switzerland, Germany, Austria. Many go for a season to seek employment with building trades, digging terraces, etc. They find much opposition as they often offer their work as "black legs," substitutes for strikers, etc. The Board has organized several institutions for the benefit of this class. The *Societa Umanitaria* of Milan, however, works in connection with the Italian, Swiss, and German trade unions to make these Italian emigrants connect themselves with the unions where they go. This last named society is the unique and powerful creation of Mr. Moise Loria, who gave ten million of lire, increased by

interest to about thirteen millions (\$2,600,000). The society was incorporated in 1893, but only began effective work in 1901. Its aim is the relief of the laboring classes, by furnishing aid, employment and education. The society has a very democratic basis; any one can join on the payment of 1 lira (20 cts.) per year; it is ruled by a council of 50 delegates chosen by the membership and by a board of directors composed of ten representatives of the society and five representatives of the Town Council of Milan. The society has already established or extended a series of schools for the artistic trades, electrotechnics, printing and allied trades. It has promoted circulating libraries, established a loan bank for cooperative societies, created employment bureaus for rural laborers. It is planning to invest its funds in model dwellings for the working classes, to create a fund for insurance against unemployment and has published several important reports of investigations as to unemployment and other vital questions, as a preparation for further action.

JAPAN.

BY KOTARO SHIMOMURA, PRESIDENT OF THE DOSHISHA UNIVERSITY, KYOTO.
POLITICAL PARTIES.

There are two principal political parties, "the Constitutional party," headed by Count Oguma, and "the Political Friends," under the leadership of Marquis Saiwonji. The latter founded and at first led by Count Itagaki, was remarkable for activity in dissemination of democratic ideas, was looked upon with the most jealous eye by the Government, and hunted down whenever an opportunity occurred. In the course of time, however, the party accommodated itself to changing circumstances, displacing the Count and putting Marquis Ito at the head, becoming henceforth a sort of political party in the service of the Government. When Ito found himself unable to take the lead, Marquis Saiwonji became the head and so continues. The other party has had Count Oguma as its leader from the beginning, and still retains its old colors. Both parties resembling each other closely in their ideas of popular and responsible government, have been bitter enemies on personal grounds, trying to come into collision on any measures proposed. Their object originally was to overthrow the predominant power of the Chosu and Satzuma clans in the Government, but in Japan so far government based upon political party has never been successful, experiment after experiment failing. The greatest defect in the political mechanism is the lack of vital practical subjects which divide men in interest and principle: it was always the personal element that lay at the foundation of political division. It still remains to be seen if an untitled "man of the people" will rise up and lead a party strong enough to be respected by the Government. The expression "the Government is high; the people are low" is a common one, illustrated in every day experiences: no popular movement as yet has been successful, unless backed up with the names of titled heads.

The Japanese Constitution provides for a House of Peers and the General Assembly. The former consists of 331 members, namely: 13 princes of blood, 41 dukes and marquises, 136 men of the Emperor's own choosing, including those who pay heavy income taxes, and 143 counts, viscounts and barons chosen mutually. The General Assembly consists of members chosen from the people by the people. The political parties in the Assembly may be represented by the following rough numbers: 130 "political friends," 96 "constitutional party" and the rest, 53, divided into petty parties.

SOCIAL CONDITIONS.

In no other relations is the fact that Japan is in a state of transition more clearly illustrated than in its present social conditions. The relations between parents and children and between husbands and wives have been slowly undergoing change, the results culminating in the creation of the civil code, in which

women, as well as children, are given the protection of their rights to as full an extent as the present Japanese conditions could allow. The position of women became recognized and a great stress is now laid on education. Public and private female higher schools, amounting now to more than 80, show every prospect of further increasing, being always crowded to the fullest capacity. During the last year or two, the introduction and adoption of skirts ("hakama") for girl students has become almost universal, and this, although a death-blow to the time-honored "Obi," to my mind is one of the greatest, if not the greatest, revolutionary movement in the recent history of female education. Japanese women have prided themselves on their gentleness, bashfulness and obedience, the result of which has been the production of women of lovely character, but with body delicate, vivacity almost gone and self-confidence almost *nil*. The usual female dress was such that no girl could exercise in any kind of athletic sports without overstepping the limits of decency. The skirts allow them free use of their limbs and also the free play of their vital spirits.

The arbitrary class division is almost obliterated. The classes of peers, knights and commons are still there, but more and more the almighty yen is becoming the common leveler of all men. In fact, the once famous "Samurai" no longer exists in fact. The Government is all powerful, but great changes have taken place here. One incident is enough to show the rest. Only a year or two ago the government notices on the Imperial railways read: "You are ordered," but now it is invariably, "You are requested."

The relation of capital and labor is such as is likely to be found in low stages of industrial development. With the land densely populated and industry narrowly limited, labor is likely to be cheap and capital to be able to do much as it pleases. Strikes are scarce, and under the present circumstances it would be impossible to organize any kind of labor union. But looked at from a philanthropic point of view, the condition of laborers has much to be improved, especially in the case of cotton-mill girls. Some agitation has recently been set up by men of socialistic tendencies, but has never met the success it deserved. The Government has been trying to frame elaborate labor laws, but the present state of industrial and economical conditions does not allow the carrying out of any stringent regulations. In the Nagasaki dock yard and in the copper mines of Ashiwo, schools, hospitals and clubhouses are provided and means are taken to look after the comfort of the cheapest laborer, but we cannot deny the fact that, as a general thing, the Japanese capitalists are working in the faith that it is wages and not comfort that the laborers are after.

INDUSTRIES.

The spinning and weaving of cotton and silk, the manufacture of cement, glass, matches, straw-paper, and beer, the refining of sugar, the making of sulphuric acid and artificial fertilizers, coal mining, copper refining, the manufacture of gas and coke and the various applications of electricity based upon water power are the principal industries to be noted. The last returns gave the number of companies as 1,367 and the capital paid up as yen 143,617,530. The establishment of iron and steel works on a gigantic scale, with two blast furnaces of high type, by the Government, show with what energy the Japanese mean to push on the work of industrial advancement. The mining regulations which have been in force for some years are the result of the governmental anxiety for the protection of life and health of miners, in enforcing strict control over the use of explosives, boilers, ventilation, safety lamps and so on. But a great deal remains to be done in the way of companies themselves providing for the comfort and education of workmen outside of what the Government enforces. This is the case with all industrial establishments. In match factories, the females and children constitute a large body of the working people, the youngest being in some cases as young as ten years. The working

duration is generally 12 hours a day, with a recess of one or two hours. The wages, of course, differ in different establishments according to kind of work; the skilled laborer generally commands 70 sen to 1 yen a day, while the common male laborers receive about 40 sen. The payment is made in the middle and at the end of each month. Whenever it is practicable, the companies pay by piece-work, thus dispensing with the troubles connected with slow work caused by time measurement. Japanese can not be regarded as good laborers; the advantages arising from the cheapness of labor are generally lost in the inefficiency of the laborer. The food consisting mainly of rice, pickled vegetables and fish, the hard working laborers are obliged to eat 3 lbs. of rice per day, thus consuming an incredible amount of the latter article in order to obtain the necessary nutrition.

EDUCATION.

There are two government universities, one at Tokyo and the other at Kyoto. The former was founded in 1877, and the latter in 1897. Below them are six colleges which have the twofold object of giving liberal education and of preparing the students for the universities, five medical schools leading to licenses, and nine technical high schools. The universities are well equipped with all modern appliances. A remarkable change seems to have taken place in the increased tendency of the young men to pursue non-literary courses, as medicine and engineering, a fact for congratulation.

The common school education is admirable. Japan is proud of having very few who cannot read or write. The last returns gave the number of common schools as 27,000 throughout the empire. A very great advance has been made by the present Ministry in the fair treatment of private schools. The schools with certain endowments and a competent faculty have been granted, without reference to religious or political connections, the privileges by which the students are excluded from the conscription until 28 years of age. Moreover, these private schools have been placed on the same footing as those governmental and public, in the rights of the graduates to enter the higher government institutions, such as the colleges, the technical high schools and the universities. This enlightened action of the Ministry is one of the most notable events in the recent Japanese history of education.

RELIGIOUS.

There is no state religion. Only when religious exercises are necessary on state occasions the Shinto rites are invariably observed. The great masses of the people are believers in Buddhism. Christianity is making slow but steady progress. The tendency, however, is toward a weakening of religious sentiments in the educated portions of the race, and what is feared is the formation of a nation devoid of positive religious beliefs. The part which the Christian colleges are destined to play in the molding of the rising generation should never be forgotten by those who keep the true interests of the country in their hearts. The last returns gave the following figures: Protestants, 55,000; Roman Catholics, 58,000; Greek Catholics, 27,000.

THE WAR AND ITS EFFECTS.

The Russo-Japanese war is expected to call forth extraordinary latent energies in the nation. The present struggle transcending all the past wars in importance, the whole nation is decided not to rest till it accomplishes what it had in mind when the war was declared. It goes without saying that the usual effects of war are evident, all the industries not connected with supplying ammunicions being at low ebb, and the people trying to reduce their expenses by confining themselves to the necessities of life. But the successes of our army on the front have kept alive the spirit of the nation, and the usual melancholy effects are not easily perceptible to casual observers.

LATIN AMERICA.

BY JOHN VAVASOUR NOEL, LATE CHIEF OF THE LATIN-AMERICAN PRESS SECTION
AT THE PAN-AMERICAN EXPOSITION.

In discussing social progress in the Latin-American countries, it will be found difficult to avoid mentioning the political disturbances of unfortunately frequent occurrence in most of them, which are, in a sense, a social phenomena, and, in many instances, signify a struggle for social betterment and individual liberty. Too often these armed conflicts have not even the comparative excuse of some just cause, but are senseless and bloody fights between political parties struggling for control. Owing to the fact that the masses are not sufficiently enlightened to realize the need of social improvement, there is no constant educational campaign nor the clamorous demands which exist in the United States and Europe for reforms and changes, for protection and safeguards.

Generally speaking, there are in the Latin-American countries two classes: the governing and the governed. The former are not inclined to grant reforms unless compelled to. The latter have not reached, as a rule, that condition of intelligence or freedom to demand or force legislation for their betterment and protection. The lower classes, especially the majority of those millions of indians who constitute the numerical force in Mexico, Central and South America are victims of the peon system and slaves to all purposes, according to our standards. Oppressed from the days of Spanish conquerors, they have been stoical and happy in their fashion, careless of the morrow. Climatic conditions have thereon a direct bearing. The stern realities of life do not influence them in lands where starvation is impossible and where a few palm leaves furnish shelter. It may be stated in a general way that the people, meaning the masses, have not come to realize the necessity for improvements in their methods of living, sanitation, customs and general surroundings, nor have ever broached the question as to whether they are receiving a fair share of the general purse in return for their contribution of labor.

There is a constantly growing tendency, however, among those whom the accident of birth and blood or of political fortune has placed in a commanding position to adopt modern ideas and champion measures which experience in older countries has suggested. A tedious and thankless task which the apathy of the people in general and Spanish-inherited procrastinating tendency emphasizes. The severe pure food laws rigidly enforced in the Argentine Republic may well serve as an example to other nations. In all countries there are, however, earnest men and women working courageously and trying to give light and educate their people in many reformatory efforts, such as sanitation, prevention of cruelty to children and animals, moral customs and in general for a higher standard of living and thinking.

In many of the Latin-American countries financial and economic conditions in general are improving, and the inflation period is a thing of the past. An adjustment and a balance is gradually being reached, which will cause the foreign capitalist to look, invest, and encourage the colonist to cast his fortunes with those of these fertile lands.

A condensed *résumé* of the leading events in each country may be of opportune interest.

MEXICO.

This vast North American Republic continues to prosper under the present régime. Reports of new enterprises are frequent, including the construction or extension of railways, the establishment of factories or the colonizing of some choice areas. There is no concern over yellow fever or bubonic plague, which, thanks to the prompt action of the Central Government, were quickly stamped out. The monetary question, though not quite settled, progressed favorably,

and the efforts of Señor Limantour and his able advisers have been rewarded, inasmuch as there has been no panic in the financial world. Large loans have been placed in the United States and abroad at unusually advantageous conditions.

CENTRAL AMERICA.

There is nothing of striking note in the five Central American Republics, excepting the fast-growing influence of American interests in Costa Rica, by the control of the railway system in the hands of the United Fruit Company. There are rumors of revolution in Honduras, and Nicaragua is feeling the reaction from the canal fever.

PANAMA.

The newest of Latin-American republics, a year old, has been settling gradually to a well regulated and tranquil life. Its sudden and rather unexpected creation brought forth many problems and the attendant mistakes. It is fair to state that President Henador and his advisers have done remarkably well and under the friendly guidance of the United States it is confidently expected that Panama will steadily progress and make the best use of her remarkable topographical position.

HAITI AND SANTO DOMINGO.

The Dominican Republic and its financial obligations have given the State Department at Washington much concern, and at the urgent request and repeated invitation of Santo Domingo, negotiations are pending whereby the United States might collect the customs revenues of the Republic and to set apart a certain portion of those receipts to meet the running expenses of the Government, devoting the rest of the funds to the payment of the legitimate creditors of the Republic. Such action would please those of European nations that have made repeated demands for the settlement of their claims and the payment of defaulted interest on national bonds. President Roosevelt has strongly urged the U. S. Senate to act in order to prevent foreign interference.

CUBA.

The Republic of Cuba continues to manage its affairs in a creditable way without the need of outside interference. President Palma is giving universal satisfaction and is likely to be re-elected. The only flaw concerns the neglect into which the sanitary service has fallen since the American occupation and the possible dangers of an epidemic of yellow fever. Notwithstanding alarming reports current, Havana as a winter resort is increasing in popularity.

ARGENTINE.

Argentina continues to prosper and the exports of cereal and other products are constantly on the increase. The railway question with the English roads has been adjusted and a new impetus given to federal roads. The administration of the new President seems to give satisfaction, especially to the foreign interests.

BRAZIL.

The coffee crop is less than usual, due doubtless to the fact that many fazendas were abandoned during the last few years. The paper currency is being gradually withdrawn from circulation and incinerated. President Alves continues to have the support of the people in general.

BOLIVIA.

The last year has been an auspicious one for Bolivia, and Col. Ismael Montes, who succeeded Gen. Pando on August last, as President will doubtless take advantage of the opportunities offered by the settlement of the Acre dispute with Brazil and the settlement of the troubles with Chile. Bolivia has great mineral wealth and a vast undeveloped territory in high altitudes.

CHILE.

This energetic Republic has won a great diplomatic victory in the settlement made with Bolivia of the long-pending dispute concerning the provinces of Tacna and Arica. The difficulty at one time threatened to involve a number of South American Republics and nearly brought the Second Pan-American Congress held in Mexico City in 1901-02, to a sudden close. The recent deficit in the budget caused some anxiety in financial circles, though it was explained that, according to the Chilean method, authorized expenditures for future improvements were included in the debit column. Cabinet changes continued in 1904 with frequency, as in the past years, which is unfortunate, as it leads to much political confusion and retards the commercial and general progress of the country. The improvement of the nitrate industry has been marked, due to the discovery of new fields, and to an increased European consumption.

COLOMBIA.

Under the able administration of that brilliant statesman, General Rafael Reyes, Colombian affairs are improving gradually. The financial situation, due to the criminal carelessness of past administrations in issuing absolutely limitless amounts of paper money, of which no estimate can ever be made, has been distressing. General Reyes cannot be expected to make miraculous changes, particularly as his countrymen are proverbially averse to reforms, but he is determined to cause such legislation to be enacted, as will in time adjust the exchange rates to a reasonable basis without precipitating a panic by any violent disturbance of the money market.

ECUADOR.

During the past year there has been a considerable revival of interest in Ecuador due to approaching completion of the railway from Guayaquil to Quito. The newly-elected President, Señor Garcia, is considered a man of progressive and liberal ideas and much is expected of his administration.

PARAGUAY AND URUGUAY

Both of the Republics have been torn by internal strife. In the first named a new Executive has been placed in power by armed force. In the second, there was a revival of the old factional strife between the Colorados (Reds) and Blancos (Whites) which was suppressed by the Government

PERU.

The year 1904 has been an eventful one for Peru historically, three chief executives succeeding each other. President Candamo, who was elected in due form to succeed General Plaza, whose term had expired, died after eight months of wise and prudent administration, and after the constitutional interim, in which the Vice-President, Dr. Calderon governed, Dr. José Pando son of a former President, was duly elected. In the fields of international relations many clouds have been cleared, particularly with Ecuador and Bolivia, concerning boundaries, but the long-standing dispute with Chile over a compliance with the stipulations of the Ancon treaty concerning the ownership of the provinces of Tacna and Arica, continues to disturb the peace of the Peruvian Foreign Office. Railway construction in Peru is progressing, and the revenues of the Peruvian Corporation are increasing.

VENEZUELA.

Conditions in this rich and healthy country continued as wretched in 1904 as in the past under the despotic rule of President Castro. No improvement is to be expected until a radical change is made, because Venezuela will not be able to attract capital or immigration under present conditions.

NEW ZEALAND.

New Zealand has fairly earned the title of the Social Laboratory of the World, the one country where advanced social experiments have been extensively tried. The list of progressive and radical measures carried out in New Zealand is amazing. Government operation of all public utilities, government banking to prevent panics, postal savings banks, nationalization of the soil, government loans to home-builders, State operation of coal mines, State trusteeship and management of estates, State title guaranty, woman suffrage, referendum, progressive taxation of land values and exemption of improvements, State purchase of patents, village and farm settlements for the poor, State cold storage and commission jobbing for farmers, eight-hour day by law, direct employment on public works, mandatory arbitration of labor disputes, are but the striking items in the list.

One wonders how they all work? Writers like the late gifted Henry D. Lloyd and the studious Professor Parsons have given us striking views of the successful working of the reforms. Some critics have claimed that there was another side.

For the most recent view giving something of the darks and lights of the picture, we are indebted to "The English Reformer's Year Book" for 1905. A writer in this says:

Whilst admitting that conciliation laws do not always conciliate, it must be admitted that the reduction of friction between master and men has been considerably reduced by the application of the Industrial Conciliation and Arbitration Act. Concerning this measure, two questions have been asked by statesmen during the year. Firstly, has the Act proved beneficial? Secondly, has it retarded the progress of the Colony? As an answer let it be said that both the number of establishments and the number of employes have increased during the year. As wages, too, are higher, it can scarcely be said from a labour point of view that the Act as administered in this Colony is a failure. Concerning employment, during the last five years, the rate of male labour has been nearly 54.17 per cent., whilst the increase in female employment has been at the rate of 42.81 per cent. Then comes the question of wage payments in the large industrial factories. In 1905 (when the Act came into operation) it stood at £1,907,592, whilst in 1900 it had reached £3,098,561. These figures will be considerably increased next year, when the returns are presented. It is difficult to find its retarding influence in this direction. In every department of commercial activity similar progress is clearly seen. There is yet, however, a "lack of interest displayed by many of the workers," and this accounts for the comparatively slow growth of the unions. In 1895 the figures were 64 unions with a membership of 9,322, but these figures were eclipsed by the 1902 returns, which gave the unions at 232, possessing a membership of 23,816.

During the political year Mr. Seddon's financial proposals have excited the attention of all political groups. There is much uneasiness still concerning New Zealand finance. Moreover, there are not wanting indications within the Colony that the Colonial Treasurer in the near future will have to husband all his resources to provide adequately for necessary public works. Another disturbing feature is that the Industrial Conciliation and Arbitration Act is likely to be neutralised by "malignant collateral action." This was reported by the Secretary for Labour. Prices are rising, owing to increased wages. In Wellington rents average one-third of the income. The value of land is increasing abnormally. This must be checked at once. The levying of general rates on land values only apparently works very well, at least so says the town clerk of Wellington.

RUSSIA.

BY VLADIMIR F. GRESIN, U. S. AGENT OF THE YARDSLAVE MANUFACTURING CO.

Among the many reforms during the past year in Russia, those which merit attention as the most important are the definitive abolition of corporal punishment, and the laws for the benefit of the laboring classes.

On January 12 (o. s.), 1904, a law was promulgated, by virtue of which tobacco factories are included in the category of those wherein the employment of minors under fifteen years of age is absolutely prohibited.

On January 19 (o. s.) by virtue of another law relating to engineers employed on engines underground in mines, tunnels, and so forth, the working day

is fixed at a maximum of eight hours. In all liquor distilleries and bottling establishments, the working day is fixed at nine hours. In addition to these new standards established by the Government, the working day has been shortened in many mills and factories on the initiative of the mill-owners themselves. The tranquil introduction of reforms is hindered by the Social-Democratic party, which incites the workmen to inaugurate strikes, and to demand the immediate introduction of the eight-hour day for all industries. Up to the present time, a maximum of eleven and one-half hours is permitted in the majority of industries. Of course, the abrupt transition from eleven and one-half to eight hours is too difficult, if not absolutely impossible, for many manufacturers would be ruined by such a transition, and would be compelled to close their factories, and the workmen would be left without employment. But by a gradual curtailment of the working day the reform might be accomplished in a comparatively short time, the majority of the manufacturers could accommodate their production to the new order of affairs, and the few whose undertakings could not subsist under such conditions would be able gradually to liquidate them.

It may be expected that the Government will be able, in the course of a few years, to institute a working day of nine hours and later one of eight hours, for all industries, without any violent shock to commerce.

Particularly deep significance is attached to the new law concerning the insurance of workmen in the case of accidents. Up to 1904 the law did not determine with sufficient exactness the responsibility of the employer in the case of accidents; the injured man or his family was obliged to seek redress in the courts, and in such cases, when it was proved that the accident had come about through the fault or the carelessness of the injured man himself, no indemnification was granted. Many owners, desirous of freeing themselves from all private responsibility, insured their workmen on a blanket policy, and thus the responsibility was transferred to the insurance company. In that case, the sum which the insurance company paid to the injured man was a purely arbitrary indemnification, so that it was determined solely by agreement between the employer and the insurance company, without the workman's being informed or his wishes consulted, and regardless of the law, and was, as a matter of fact, a voluntary sop to the injured workman, given on the assumption that the men would be satisfied with the insurance payment, and would not have recourse to the law courts.

Dating from January 1, 1904, a special law has been instituted, which renders employers responsible for accidents to their workmen, without regard to the causes of the accident; that is to say, without taking into consideration whether the accident occurred through the carelessness of the workmen or from other causes. This law compels the employer (or the insurance company) to indemnify the victims of accident in full consonance with the requirements of special regulations, which prescribe that, in addition to the payment in case of death or disablement, assistance must be given to the family, also money for medical expenses, the funeral, and so forth. Hitherto no one exercised any control over the justice of an insurance company's settlement, and incredible exploitation of the workmen took place on this basis; now the agreement between the insurance company and the injured man or his family, with regard to the form and amount of the indemnity, is subject to the certification of the Factories Inspection Board, which refuses to certify if the agreement is not in accordance with the law.

This law has caused the majority of the factory owners to resort to insurance, and the insurance companies have taken advantage of the situation and have considerably augmented their premiums; and this proceeding in its turn, has induced the prompt organization of mutual companies, to which factory owners are now going over.

This law is temporary; it represents a transition step to insurance by the Government, as is evident from the Imperial Manifesto of December 12 (o. s.), 1904, which says, among other things: ". . . the further development of the measures already taken for guaranteeing the lot of workingmen in mills, factories and industries, must be secured, by introducing Government insurance to these men."

SWEDEN.

BY GERDA MEYERSON, SECRETARY OF THE ALLIANCE FOR
SOCIAL SERVICE, STOCKHOLM.

The most important events in the social world in Sweden during the year 1904 are connected with a more intense agitation for the education of the masses, total abstinence, and the improvement of the economic conditions of the laboring class.

The two most important social-political questions discussed by Parliament have been the question of suffrage and the question of small holdings of land. The former, which during many years has been the most prominent question in Sweden, remains unsolved. A proposal put forth by the government that the right of suffrage should be extended to all males over twenty-five years of age, who have completed their time of military service and paid all national and local taxes, was rejected by Parliament. The question will, however, come up again for discussion at the next session.

The question of small holdings of land has had a happier fate. The Parliament of 1904 appropriated as a nucleus for a loan fund 10,000,000 crowns. From this fund loans may be secured by persons desiring to secure from village authorities building lots (not to exceed in value 3,000 crowns) or farm lands (not to exceed in value 15,000 crowns). Since the rate of interest is 3.6 per cent and the loans may be repaid on very easy terms, it is expected that a large number of farmers will now be able to secure their own homes. By this means the products of the soil will increase and emigration decrease.

The movement for popular education has developed in a gratifying degree, especially through the efforts of the "Alliance for Popular Education." The lecture societies or lyceums, which are scattered over the whole country, represent an outlet for this purpose of 120,000 crowns, and their number is steadily increasing. Several new library associations have been organized and it is possible that a request for a government appropriation for this work will be made at the next Parliament. Several village governments, temperance societies, etc., have provided means for circulating libraries. A meeting in the interest of popular education was held in Stockholm, July, 1904.

Courses of temperance lectures have been held in several places. The course in Stockholm had an attendance of 1,200. The physicians of Sweden have sent a petition to the Ecclesiastical Department requesting a more strict enforcement of the ordinance requiring temperance instruction in schools. Parliament has framed a resolution to the King requesting the prohibition of the sale of malt liquors at military encampments.

Summer schools conducted more especially but not exclusively for public school teachers have been held in Stockholm, Lund, and several other places. Societies of young people have been organized around about in the country, and gatherings of young people for patriotic and temperance purposes have been held at several places.

A National Anti-Tuberculosis Society has been organized for the purpose of combating the disease by spreading information concerning its causes and also by improving private and public hygiene. Parliament has appropriated 400,000 crowns for sanatoria for consumptives.

To improve the economic and social conditions of the Lapps a central society embracing several smaller Lapp societies in Northern Sweden has been

organized. A movement for the suppression of the "White Slave" traffic has also been begun and has its headquarters in Stockholm.

A survey of the labor world shows several new organizations among the laboring people, especially in Southern Sweden. In the building trades a serious conflict has begun. Employers have strengthened their previously existing organizations and organized new ones. Negotiations have been carried on between employers and employees concerning arbitration in labor disputes, and in some cases have led to good results.

The movement for social enlightenment has advanced considerably, especially through the organization of "The Central Alliance for Social Service." This institution maintains in Stockholm a bureau for social information and a library from which may be obtained information and advice concerning social movements and social questions in Sweden and other countries.

SWITZERLAND.

BY PROF. LOUIS WAURIN, UNIVERSITY OF GENEVA.

PROPORTIONAL REPRESENTATION.

No phenomenon in contemporaneous Switzerland is more striking than the advance of proportional representation. It is true that the reform has remained as yet a conquest of the cantons, and that an attempt a few years ago to have it applied to the election of national Legislature failed, but it was gratifying to the proportionalist to observe in that circumstance that the minority was improving and to know that the opposition to their scheme came especially from parts of the country which have continued to live a sort of patriarchal life and where the notion of two antagonistic party organizations hardly exists. In these cantons, indeed, there are at every period a few men who enjoy universal confidence and are sent without opposition to the Parliament, at Bern. These communities did not wish any change in their electoral legislation because they were enjoying the privilege of a very satisfactory and almost paradisiacal condition. In other parts of the country the bulk of the opposition to the great democratic reform was found mostly in the Radical party, which had succeeded in getting control of the government, and was consequently satisfied with the situation. The question will certainly come up again before long.

The cantons are the laboratory of political and social experiment, and it is only when they have been carried that the Confederation itself yields to the pressure of new ideas. If it is so, the prospects are very good for the future of proportional representation, for its successes in cantonal life have been not only very rapid, but very steady. In about two-thirds of the twenty-two Swiss cantons the door has been opened somehow or other to the great reform. Generally, it is being applied to the election of the Great Councils which correspond to the States Houses of Representatives in America. But it is not always the case. In the canton of Bern, for instance, the majority of the voters declared themselves against it by a very small majority. It was not introduced, therefore, into the cantonal electoral law. But the city of Bern, thanks to the prevailing system of decentralization, adopted it for its own special use. The citizens of the Federal City were divided into three parties: the Radicals, the Conservatives, and the Socialists, none of whom were able to obtain a majority at the polls. The Conservatives and the Socialists decided to unite for the purpose of introducing proportional representation in municipal affairs, and succeeded.

As a matter of fact, wherever the new system was adopted it was on account of an alliance of minorities having to complain of the domination of an arrogant political monopoly taking hold of the government, and these minorities were generally the Conservatives and the Socialists. It is to be noticed, however, that in communities like the Catholic canton of Freiburg, where the Conservative

party holds the power, the Radicals enrolled in favor of the electoral system that would permit them to penetrate into the different parts of the country and acquire their legitimate share of effective influence, and at the present hour they work in that spirit.

For over thirty years civic societies had applied themselves to the task of shaping the new electoral mode into practical form, but they had been surrounded almost everywhere by universal indifference. In 1892, the Italian canton of Ticino, not knowing how to pacify the passions aroused by a revolution which was itself the product of unjust representation, falsified by gerrymandering, adopted the work of the pioneers of true representation. And since that time the march went on so that, by this time, about two-thirds of the Swiss cantons have been won for the new system. The movement has in fact become irrepensible. And what an encouragement, also, it is to know that the effects of the reform have been what had been expected, an abatement of political feuds and intolerance, an improvement of the administrative work, thanks to a greater independence given to the representatives of the people. Now where the old and obsolete majority system has given way a new thing has been seen hitherto unknown even in the most advanced democracy; there is not a voter who goes to the polls without being assured that he will obtain a part of the representation, unless he belongs to a party so microscopically small that it cannot pretend to compete for the distribution of the vacant seats to the different tickets in the field.

So magnificent has been the result of the bold experiment that in no place has any effort been made to go back to the former state of things. This is also a new phenomenon in the history of democracy, for it would be very difficult indeed to name an important innovation, deeply changing the habits and traditions of the people, which has not been followed by some reactionary assaults.

As an instance of the working of proportional representation, we shall give here the figures relating to the election of the Great Council of the canton of Geneva, which took place on the 13th of November, 1904. This body numbers 100 members, and they are sent by three electoral colleges or districts.

The results have been as follows:

1. *City of Geneva*. Radicals, 10 Democrats 11, Independents 2, Socialists 5, Nationals 1, Alimentation ticket 1; total 30.
2. *Left Shore* (of the Rhone). Radicals 17, Democrats 11, Independents, 8, Socialists 6, Nationals 2; totals 44.
3. *Right Shore*. Radicals 11, Democrats 8, Independents 3, Socialists 3, Nationals 1.

Grand total: Radicals 38, Democrats 30, Independents 13, Socialists 14, Nationals 4, Alimentation ticket 1, 100 members.

The president of the assembly is a Radical who obtained 94 suffrages out of 100. The Legislature numbers roughly 52 members of the Left and 48 of the Right side, but the party vote, strictly speaking, will be an exception.

Hare and John Stuart Mill, the great theorists of proportional representation have not lost their time, and Mr. Pomeroy, of Newark, so earnest in his advocacy of their views, may be encouraged by the magnificent harvest which is already ripe in Switzerland. It will not be long before other countries in Europe add their names to the list of progressive democracies where popular representation becomes a real thing.

An interesting little pamphlet may naturally be pointed out in the conclusion of this article. "Les lois Suisses sur la Représentation Proportionnelle comparées et commentées par Alphonse Frey. (Genève, Georg & Co.) Publishers.

THE WOMEN'S MOVEMENT.

The Swiss women do not feel that they are enslaved under the power of men, but up to the last years they have lacked the organization which was

necessary to make them feel that they had a work of their own to accomplish and which would remain undone or badly done if they should remain scattered and silent. Now their situation is already quite different from what it was a few score of years ago.

Under the pressure of some good and eloquent examples of feminist initiation coming principally from England and from America, they have organized into a National Alliance, and from time to time we hear that the Swiss woman is alive to the great responsibilities of the hour.

She has been offered an opportunity to express her wishes concerning some chapters of the Penal Code which is now under preparation, and especially on the subject of the responsibility of the father in the sad case of illegitimate births, and in kindred problems.

She has proved herself most useful in organizing women's societies in different towns where they develop a better feeling between social classes and try to make life better to those who come in contact with them. She has also from the beginning of the temperance crusade, about thirty years ago, taken an important part in the development of the anti-alcoholic activities. All this is a new departure. Her former usefulness was already great in the community, especially in the field of the parish charities and of the sick and disabled, but it remained almost confined to these limits. In America it is a common thing to hear the qualificative *great* applied to women like these who lead in the settlements and educational reforms of the country, like temperance. In Switzerland the time is not far off when instead of speaking of good, clever, distinguished and even remarkable women, it will appear most natural to say "a great woman."

In November, 1904, the National Alliance availed itself of the condemnation to death (which has been commuted twice), at St. Gall, of an unmarried woman who had a child whom she murdered, to protest against the immunity of the man who had seduced the girl. This new voice of women in public affairs is a matter of rejoicing.

As to her participation in elections it will soon begin by her admission into the ecclesiastical polls for the choice of pastors or consistories. The thing is going successfully through the preliminary steps.

THE UNITED STATES.

BY W. D. P. BLISS, EDITOR OF THE "ENCYCLOPEDIA OF SOCIAL REFORM."

Undoubtedly the greatest political and social event of the United States in the last year was the disappearance of the party of individualism. This is not to say that a Jeffersonian democracy has no future in the United States, but, after the election of 1904, few will deny, that in order even to hope to win, in another election, the Democracy must radically change its individualistic and negative form. The positive and the social has the future.

We use the word "disappearance" advisedly. The Republican party did not win the votes the Democratic party lost. Not one single Democratic vote need have gone to Mr. Roosevelt to make his majority. From 1900 to 1904 while the Democratic party lost 1,275,379 votes, the Republican party gained only 416,566, a number by no means equal to the normal increase of the voting population. During those years, the census estimates that the population of the United States increased by 5,449,000; if one-fifth of these represented possible voters, it would make 1,089,400 votes. The Republican gain was thus less than one-half the normal increase. If Democratic votes were cast for Mr. Roosevelt, they were more than counterbalanced by Republican votes not cast or cast for some other party. The Democratic votes literally disappeared.

Some of these were probably cast for the Socialist party, the one party which did make astonishing and significant gains, an advance of nearly 500 per cent.

Some think the Democratic party may rehabilitate itself by declaring for the public ownership of natural monopolies and for direct legislation, a programme which would emphasize the defeat of individualism. But more believe that the political future of the United States lies between "the benevolent feudalism" of the party of capital and "the evolutionary socialism" of the party of labor.

Political leaders seem to adopt this view, for since the election Mr. J. R. Garfield of the U. S. Department of Commerce and Labor, has proposed the national incorporation and resultant supervision of interstate commercial bodies, while various publicists are urging such measures as the federal control of trusts, the government regulation of railroad rates—a proposal pushed to the front by Mr. Roosevelt himself—the enforced publicity of accounts and a national supervision of insurance. Perhaps equally significant is the new demand in New York City led by the Mayor himself and endorsed by Tammany, for an electric and gas light plant to be owned and operated by the city. Similar proposals are being agitated in other cities, notably Chicago.

Perhaps next in importance to this political defeat of individualism is the organizing of capital against organized labor. That this is the purpose no capitalist probably will admit. But equally certainly, all trade unionists and most political economists so believe. Mr. David M. Parry, president of the Employers' National Association, is credited with the statement that "fully one thousand manufacturing establishments have in the last year abandoned the closed shop and thrown their doors open to workmen without regard to their membership or non-membership in a union." Trade unionists and most of their friends are agreed that if the open shop movement succeeds, it means the death of trade unions, because a trade union has no power if it cannot control the workers in a trade, and almost all economists are agreed that the defeat of trade unionism, leaving the workers unorganized, to contend with capital organized, would be a national calamity. Thus far, however, there seems little danger of the defeat of trade unionism. The convention of the American Federation of Labor in December was the most successful and the most harmonious in its history. Mr. Gompers, president for twenty-one years, was re-elected with but one dissenting vote. The dues reported paid were larger than ever before. It was reported that there were during the year ending September 30, 1904, 1,806 strikes, of which 1,197 were successful; 233 compromised, 194 lost and 178 pending. The great strike of the New York East Side garment workers was, however, lost. The great Fall River strike has just been compromised, largely by the tact of the newly-elected Governor Douglas. His election, as a Democrat, in Massachusetts in such a Republican national victory was itself one of the greatest and most significant features of the election. He won practically on a single plank—reciprocity with Canada—which is thus shown to be a winning measure.

Equally significant and most cheering was the election of Gov. Folk (Democrat) in Missouri, and Gov. La Follette (Independent Republican) in Wisconsin. Both stood on a platform of opposition to and exposure of the corruption and misrule of the machines of their own parties. In Colorado, the year has seen the quieting of the turbulent strife between the coal miners and the employers, and the triumphant election of Alva Adams as Governor, a Democrat, favoring and favored by the side of labor, although it is true that his election has been contested, and the end is not yet.

Worthy of mention among the events of the year has been the publication in two popular magazines of two series of articles—one "Frenzied Finance," by Thos. W. Lawson, the well-known Boston financier, a sensational exposure of corruption and legislature-buying by some of the leading financial companies and insurance companies in the United States—and the other, a

series of articles on "The Shame of the Cities," an exposure of municipal corruption. One of the last-named articles was largely used in the La Follette campaign in Wisconsin and the other articles have sent up the circulation of the magazine that publishes them well toward the million mark. Mr. Robert Hunter's book "Poverty," published this year, has also elicited general discussion by assertions based upon facts, that at least ten millions of people in the United States are in acute poverty. And yet the poor of the world are crowding to our shores; immigration, this year large, promises to make the fiscal year ending June 30, 1905, a record one in immigration, with over 1,000,000 immigrants in a single twelvemonth. Yet the efforts to cope with the poverty, ignorance and crime in our land are more than ever. Benefactions, in 1904, not counting sums less than \$5,000 each, reached the large sum of \$90,000,000. In New York City a College of Philanthropy for the scientific equipment of workers for social service has been endowed. At St. Louis, in libraries all over the land, and in all circles of thought, social problems were the questions of the year. A noteworthy evidence of this was the fact that one third of President Roosevelt's last message was devoted to social questions. Such a message was never written before.

Among the events of the year in the United States were some that are of world-wide significance. The greatest of these was the purchase by the United States of the Panama canal route involving its being energetically pushed to completion and owned and controlled by the United States. Of world-wide importance were the National Arbitration Conference held in Washington in January, the meeting at St. Louis in September, of the Interparliamentary Union for the Promotion of Arbitration, and the great International Peace Congress held in Boston in October. It was as a result of these three congresses that the President has issued a call for a new International Peace Conference. Last, but not least, must be mentioned the great Louisiana Purchase International Exposition of St. Louis.

POLITICAL CONSTITUTION OF LEGISLATURES.

AUSTRIA.

In Austria the Upper House consists of Princes of the Imperial Family, a number of nobles with landed property; ten archbishops and seven bishops, and some 160 prominent individuals, nominated by the emperor. The Lower House has 425 members, elected by direct or indirect suffrage.

With the exception of the Socialists, most parties in Austria proper may be termed Home-rulers. The Czechs, the Poles, the Ruthenians, the Italians, etc., all aim at autonomy in some form or another. The Government is carried on by a combination of parties, there being no permanent majority.

BELGIUM.

The *Two Chambers* are both elected by a system of plural voting. Every male Belgian of 25 has a vote, but he may, owing to wealth, profession, or education, have as many as three votes.

Chamber of Representatives.—Composed of the following: Catholics, 93 members, led by the Minister, M. Beernaert, and M. Woeste. Christian Democrats, 2; M. Daens. Liberals and Progressists, 41; M. Hymans, M. Janson (leaders). Socialists, 30, M. Vandervelde, (leader).

The Senate.—Catholics, 61; Liberals and Progressists, 43; Socialists, 6.

The present government is in the hands of the Catholic party, and presided over by M. de Smet de Meyer.

FRANCE.

Senate.—The senate is not a hereditary chamber. Its members are elected by the Senatorial Colleges throughout the country, which in turn are elected by manhood suffrage. There are, however, a few life members of the Senate. The action of the Senate is to steady but not to oppose the popular House.

Chamber of Deputies.—The Chamber is divided into parties as follows: Progressists, 193 members; M. Ribot (leader). Radicals, 157 members; M. Jaures (leader). Monarchists (Bonapartists, Royalists), 41 members; M. Cochin (leader). Nationalists, 49 members; M. Millevoye (leader). Socialists, 46 members; Rallies (Catholics), 35 members, Abb. Lemire (leader); Radical Socialists, 69 members.

Present Administration.—The present Administration is supported by a coalition of Radicals, Socialists, Radical-Socialists, and the more advanced Progressists. This so-called Republican "block" was formed during the Dreyfus case. For the first time in French history the Socialists have been recognized as a party of government.

Programme.—The programme of the present Combes Administration includes disestablishment; unsectarian elementary education, with State monopoly of schools; income tax; old-age pensions.

GERMANY.

The Bundesrath.—Consists of 58 Delegates from the State governments composing the German Empire. Its functions are mainly administrative, and consist in the work of 12 committees for various Departments of State business. Declaration of war, the making of treaties, the dissolution of the Reichstag and the settlement of disputes between State and State form part of the duties of the Bundesrath.

The Reichstag is elected by all male Germans of 25 years of age, one Delegate being chosen for every 100,000 of the population. All new bills, finance, and tariff legislation are dealt with in this house.

Political Parties.—The government is carried on by combinations of parties, no one having an absolute majority in the Chamber. The chief parties are: Conservative Right, 72; Center (Catholic), 100; Social Democrats, 80; National Liberals, 50; Radical Left (Freisinnige Volkspartei), 30; Poles, 15; Various, 50.

GREAT BRITAIN.

House of Lords.—Four peers of the Blood Royal; 2 archbishops; 22 Dukes; 23 Marquises; 124 Earls; 35 Viscounts; 24 Bishops; 313 Barons; 16 Scotch peers, 28 Irish.—591.

House of Commons.—At the general election in October, 1900, there were elected 402 Conservatives and Liberal Unionists; 183 Liberals; 82 Nationalists; 2 Labor, and the Speaker, a total of 670 members, with a Ministerialist majority of 135. To January 18, 1905, the Conservatives had gained one seat at bye-election and had lost a large number of others, whilst a few Unionists had deserted from the Government to the Opposition. On the 18th of January, 1905, the figures were as follows: Unionists, 380; Liberals, 202; Nationalists, 82; Labor, 5; Speaker, 1, giving a Ministerialist majority of 91, that is a reduction of 44 since the election of 1900.

HOLLAND.

The First Chamber consists of 26 Liberals, 15 Roman Catholics, 9 Anti-Revolutionists. It is reactionary.

The Second Chamber consists of 100 members. The number of parties are as follows: Anti-Revolutionists, 31; Catholics, 24; Liberals, 29; Liberal Democrats, 8; Social Democrats, 8.

The Present Government consists of a coalition of the Anti-Revolutionists led by the Prime Minister, Dr. Kuyper. The Catholics, the Liberals, led by Gaemani Borgesius and Prof. Van der Vlugt, aim at curtailing the privileges of capital, and securing the rights of Labor. The Liberal Democrats, led by Prof. Drucker, and the Social Democrats, by Mr. Froelstroc, are the two Advanced Progressive parties.

HUNGARY.

House of Magnates.—Members by birth, by fortune, by dignity and royal nomination and by election from the autonomous parliament of Croatia-Slavonia-Dalmatia, some 400 in all.

House of Deputies.—Elected, 413. The suffrage is very restricted—to some 1,000,000 out of 17,000,000—and is on a property and educational basis. The Liberals, supporting the Government, have been in power since 1867 until now, and are opposed by the Independent party, the Railroad party, and the People's party. (See article Hungary, p 232). At the recent election, January 1, 1905, the Independents led by Kossuth, came into power, which will mean a widened suffrage, further separation from Austria, and social-economic reforms.

ITALY.

Senate (500 members about) is composed in three fairly equal parts: (1) Of men who have attained to high office or dignities in the pulpit service; (2) of men of wealth; and (3) of men of distinction in art, science, and letters

Chamber of Deputies.—Ministerialists, 343; Marquis de Rudini and Signor Sonnino (leaders). Constitutional Opposition, 39; Giovanni Giolitti, (leader). Extreme left (Radicals, Republicans, and Socialists), 85; Signors Ferri, Turati, and Labriola. Other parties, 16.

RUSSIA.

System of Government.—The supreme Government is carried on by four Councils or Boards, all of which, however, may be overridden by the Emperor.

(1) The Council of State, or Council of the Empire. This Board consists of a President and an indefinite number of members. It is the nearest approach to a legislative body that Russia possesses, but its functions, strictly speaking, are merely advisory. (2) The Senate, or "Ruling Senate." This is the highest Court of Appeal, and the body through which new laws are promulgated. (3) The Council of Ministers. This Council is formed of all the Ministers of State, certain ex-Ministers, and other high officials. It has no collective responsibility.

IN THE HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES, 58TH AND 59TH CONGRESSES.

STATES.	FIFTY-EIGHTH CONGRESS. ¹			FIFTY-NINTH CONGRESS. ¹			STATES.	FIFTY-EIGHTH CONGRESS ²			FIFTY-NINTH CONGRESS.		
	D'm	Rep	Lab.	D'm	Rep	Pop		D'm	Rep	Lab.	D'm	Rep	Pop.
Alabama	9			9			Nevada	1			1		
Arkansas	7			7			New Hampshire		2			2	
California	1	5	2		8		New Jersey	3	7		1	9	
Colorado	1	2			3		New York	17	20		11	26	
Connecticut		5			5		North Carolina	10			9	1	
Delaware	1				1		North Dakota		2			2	
Florida	3			3			Ohio	4	17		1	20	
Georgia	11			11			Oregon		2			2	
Idaho		1			1		Pennsylvania	4	27		1	31	
Illinois	8	17		1	24		Rhode Island	1	1		1	1	
Indiana	4	9		2	11		South Carolina	7			7		
Iowa	1	10			11		South Dakota		2			2	
Kansas		8			8		Tennessee	8	2			2	
Kentucky	10	1		9	2		Texas	2	15		16		
Louisiana	7			7			Utah		1			1	
Maine		4			4		Vermont		2			2	
Maryland	2	4		3	3		Virginia		1		9	1	
Massachusetts	4	10		3	11		Washington		3			3	
Michigan	1	11			12		West Virginia		5			5	
Minnesota	1	8					Wisconsin	1	10		1	10	
Mississippi	8			8			Wyoming		1			1	
Missouri	15	1		7	9								
Montana		1			1		Total	175	207	2	136	250	
Nebraska	1	5			6								

¹ As constituted at the beginning of the first session. ² One vacancy.

UNIVERSITY EXTENSION.

The American Society for the Extension of University Teaching was founded at Philadelphia in June, 1890, and incorporated in March, 1892. The present officers are: President, Frederick B. Miles; Treasurer, Charles A. Brinley; Secretary, Charles D. Atkins. The office is in Philadelphia. The aim of University Extension is, first, to extend higher education to all classes of people; second, to extend education through the whole of adult life; third, to extend thorough methods of study to subjects of everyday interest. During 1903-1904 the Society has arranged for the delivery of 111 courses of lectures at 86 centres. The total course attendance at lectures was 141,412. The number of courses arranged by states was as follows: Pennsylvania, 48; New York, 29; New Jersey, 16; Maryland, 5; Connecticut, 7; Virginia, 4; Delaware, 1; Rhode Island, 1. The division by subject is as follows: Literature, 35; history, 30; music and art, 22; science, 13; ethics and philosophy, 10; political economy, 1. The constantly widening use that is being made of the Society's lectures and of the University Extension system is shown by the following list of the various auspices under which the courses of 1903-1904 were delivered: Centres under control of Women's Clubs, 9; educational institutions (schools, Brooklyn Institute, etc.), 12; New York City Board of Education ("Free Lectures to the People"), 20; The University Extension Society and the Free Library of Philadelphia ("Free Lecture Courses to the People"), 11; regular University Extension Centres, 59. The Society has just completed its fourteenth year of work. Since its organization there have been delivered under its auspices 1,342 courses, comprising 7,863 lectures. The average attendance at each lecture has been 205, and the aggregate attendance 1,615,291. The most important work, outside of that of the general Society in Philadelphia, is carried on under the auspices of the University of Chicago, the Regents of the University of New York, Rutgers College, New Brunswick, Columbia University, New York and in California. Sample syllabi and circulars descriptive of University Extension can be obtained free of charge by addressing University Extension Society, 111 South 15th St., Philadelphia, Pa.

RUSKIN UNIVERSITY.

Ruskin University, located at Glen Ellyn, Ill., twenty-two miles west of Chicago, is the outgrowth of Ruskin College, established at Trenton, Mo., in 1900, by George McA. Miller, President and A. D. Miller, Vice-President of the University.

The purpose of this institution is to furnish young men and women the opportunity of earning their board and lodging while getting their education. Ruskin University Alliance, a business corporation with assets representing half-a-million dollars of stock, acts as fiscal agent of the University, establishing and maintaining industries by sale of stock and profits on products. This avoids the necessity of endowment and enables the University to avoid the charge of being dominated by capital and to maintain a free forum for investigation and discussion of all problems relating to social progress. The University occupies 140 acres, half of which are represented by modern buildings, and industrial equipment.

The faculty and lecture staff consists of about forty persons.

Students pay from \$40 to \$75 per year in advance, according to the department entered, and are allowed to earn board and lodging in the industries maintained by Ruskin University Alliance by working from twenty-five to twenty-eight hours per week.

A Home School for Children below the High-school grade is conducted on a plan which eliminates the ordinary textbook. The pupils in this department are provided with light labor as a part of their training, and are

allowed on board what it is worth. None under sixteen are received in the Industrial Guild and allowed to earn the entire expense of their board and room. Students may pay these expenses which are from \$2.50 to \$3 per week. About 75 per cent. of the student body are members of the Industrial Guild.

BUREAUS OF LABOR.

The first bureau established in this or any other country for the collection and publication of statistics relating to labor was that of the State of Massachusetts, established June 23, 1869. Three years later Pennsylvania created a bureau and since then they have been created in California, Colorado, Connecticut, Idaho, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maine, Maryland, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Montana, Nebraska, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New York, North Carolina, North Dakota, Ohio, Oregon, Rhode Island, South Dakota, Tennessee, Utah, Virginia, Washington, West Virginia, Wisconsin.

The U. S. Federal Bureau of Labor was established June 13, 1888; in 1903, it became the Department of Labor. The bureaus of South Dakota and Utah have been discontinued. That of Kentucky, up to date, has not concerned itself with the immediate interests of labor.

The chief officer of each of the State bureaus is located at the capital of the State in which he serves, with three exceptions, where he is at Baltimore, in California at San Francisco, and in Louisiana at New Orleans. The salaries paid the commissioners are \$5,000 for the United States; \$3,500 for New York; \$3,000 for California and Massachusetts, and from \$2,500 to \$1,200 in other states. The Secretary of State is ex-officio commissioner of labor in Colorado and the Governor in Nebraska. The United States Federal Department of Labor spends \$172,212 per year and has 103 employees; New York spends \$130,400, with 22 employees; Illinois, \$52,450, with 5 employees; Massachusetts, \$31,674, with 25 employees. No other State has over 7 employees.

The following are the most important reports of the United States:

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1886. First,	Industrial Depressions (out of print).....	496
1886. Second,	Convict Labor (out of print).....	612
1888. Fourth,	Working Women in Large Cities (out of print).....	631
1889. Fifth,	Railroad Labor (out of print).....	588
1890. Sixth,	Cost of Production: Iron, Steel, Coal, etc.....	1404
1891. Seventh,	Cost of Production: The Textiles and Glass (two volumes) (out of print).....	2048
1892. Eighth,	Industrial Education (out of print).....	707
1893. Ninth,	Building and Loan Associations (out of print).....	719
1895-96. Eleventh,	Work and Wages of Men, Women, and Children (out of print).....	671
1897. Twelfth,	Economic Aspect of the Liquor Problem (out of print).....	275
1898. Thirteenth,	Hand and Machine Labor (two volumes) (out of print).....	1604
1899. Fourteenth,	Water, Gas, and Electric-light Plants under Private and Municipal Ownership (out of print).....	983
1901. Sixteenth,	Strikes and Lockouts (January 1, 1881, to December 31, 1900).....	1053
1902. Seventeenth,	Trade and Technical Education.....	1333
1904. Nineteenth,	Wages and Hours of Labor (in press).....	
1905. Twentieth,	Convict Labor (in preparation).....	
1906. Twenty-first,	Strikes and Lockouts (in preparation).....	

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1892. Second,	Labor Laws of the United States (second edition, revised, 1896) (out of print).....	1383
1893. Fourth,	Compulsory Insurance in Germany, etc.....	370
1893. Fifth,	The Gothenburg System of Liquor Traffic (out of print).....	253
1894. Seventh,	The Slums of Baltimore, Chicago, New York, and Philadelphia (out of print).....	620
1895. Eighth,	The Housing of the Working People (with plans and illustrations) (out of print).....	461
1904. Tenth,	Labor Laws of the United States (revised edition, in press).....	
1904. Eleventh,	Regulation and Restriction of Output (in press).....	
1905. Twelfth,	Coal Mine Labor in Europe (in press).....	

LEADING ARTICLES OF THE BULLETIN

The Bulletin is issued every other month

- No. 1. Private and public debt in the United States, by George K. Holmes.
 No. 4. The sweating system, by Henry White.
 No. 6. Coöperative distribution, by Edward W. Bemis, Ph.D.
 No. 7. Industrial communities, by W. F. Willoughby.
 No. 8. Railway relief departments, by Emory R. Johnson, Ph.D.
 No. 10. Condition of the Negro in various cities. Building and loan associations.
 No. 13. The anthracite mine laborers, by G. O. Virtue, Ph.D.
 No. 15. Boarding homes and clubs for working women, by Mary S. Ferguson.
 The trade-union label, by John Graham Brooks.
 No. 17. Brotherhood relief and insurance of railway employees, by E. R. Johnson, Ph.D.
 No. 18. Wages in the United States and Europe, 1870 to 1898.
 No. 21. Pawnbroking in Europe and the United States, by W. R. Patterson, Ph.D.
 No. 22. Benefit features of American trade unions, by Edward M. Bemis, Ph.D.
 The Negro in the black belt: Some social sketches, by W. E. B. Du Bois, Ph.D.
 No. 26. Protection of workmen in their employment, by Stephen D. Fessenden.
 No. 29. Trusts and industrial combinations, by J. W. Jenks, Ph.D.
 No. 31. Betterment of industrial conditions, by Victor H. Olmstead.
 Present status of employers' liability in the United States, by Stephen D. Fessenden.
 No. 32. Accidents to labor as regulated by law in the United States, by W. F. Willoughby.
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 No. 42. Statistics of cities.
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 No. 44. Factory sanitation and labor protection, by C. F. W. Doehring, Ph.D.
 No. 46. Report of Anthracite Coal Strike Commission.
 No. 48. Farm colonies of the Salvation Army, by Commander Booth Tucker.
 No. 49. Cost of living.
 Labor conditions in New Zealand, by Victor S. Clark, Ph.D.
 No. 52. Child labor in the United States, by Hannah R. Sewall, Ph.D.
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 No. 54. The value and influence of labor statistics, by Carroll D. Wright.
 Strikes and lockouts in the United States, 1881 to 1900, by G. W. W. Hanger.
 Wages in the United States and Europe, 1890 to 1903, by G. W. W. Hanger.
 Cost of living and retail prices in the United States, 1890 to 1903, by G. W. W. Hanger.
 Wholesale prices in the United States, 1890 to 1903, by G. W. W. Hanger.
 Housing of the working people of the United States by employers, by G. W. W. Hanger.
 Public baths in the United States, by G. W. W. Hanger.
 Trade and technical education in the United States.
 Hand and machine labor in the United States.
 Labor legislation in the United States, by G. A. Weber.
 No. 55. Building and loan associations in the United States, by G. W. W. Hanger.
 No. 56. Labor conditions in Australia, by Victor S. Clark, Ph.D.

FOREIGN BUREAUS OF LABOR.

Austria.—*Arbeitsstatistisches Amt in R. K. Handelsministeriums* (1898) publishes *Soziale Rundschau*, a monthly bulletin.

Belgium.—*Office du Travail* (1894) publishes *Revue de Travail* monthly, and annual reports.

Canada.—*Bureau of Labor* (1890) publishes a *Labor Gazette* monthly.

Denmark.—*Bureau de Statistique de l'Etat* (1850) publishes an annual, *Statistik Tabelvaerk*.

France.—*Office du Travail* (1891) publishes *Bulletin de l'Office du Travail*, monthly, and an *Annuaire Statistique*.

Germany.—*Kaiserliches Statistisches Amt* (1891) publishes *Reichs-Arbeitsblatt*, monthly, and bulletins irregularly.

Great Britain.—*Labor Department of the Board of Trade* (1886) publishes monthly a *Labor Gazette* and reports on special subjects annually.

Italy.—*Officio del Lavoro* (1902) reports irregularly.

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New Zealand.—*Department of Labor* (1891) publishes *Journal of the Department of Labor* monthly.

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A BIBLIOGRAPHY OF ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL SUBJECTS.

EDITED BY W. D. P. BLISS.

This bibliography, in order to be most helpful, is concise. Each section has been submitted to some specialist in its given field, to make it a bibliography by specialists, for those who are not specialists. It is prepared, not from the standpoint of the academic student, but for the needs of the practical reform worker. There are few references to books out of print or not available in the United States.

It is the hope to keep the bibliography, year by year, up to date. Suggestions of corrections, changes or additions will be gratefully received and may be sent to W. D. P. Bliss, care of *Social Progress*, 287 Fourth Ave., New York.

O. P.—Out of print. C.—A book distinctly Conservative. R.—Distinctly Radical. Prices are for cloth, except as stated.

Books on this list may be ordered through the Institute of Social Service, 287 Fourth Ave., New York City.

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Gives valuable international statistics.
See also Labor Industrial Conditions, etc.
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- CARLYLE, THOMAS. Past and Present. Chartism, Sartor Resartus. New York. Harpers. \$1.25.
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State Board of Charities of Massachusetts, Boston, Mass.
New Jersey State Board of Children's Guardians.
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- Correspondence Addresses: National Municipal League, C. R. Woodruff, Sec., 703 North American Building, Philadelphia, Pa. League of American Municipalities, John MacVicar, Sec., Des Moines, Iowa. Bureau of Civic Coöperation, 5711 Kimbark Ave., Chicago, Ill. Municipal Journal, London, W. 24 N.: 6 Salisbury Court, London, E. C.*

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DIRECTORY OF SOCIETIES.

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It is composed of 118 national unions, representing approximately 27,000 local unions, with a membership now estimated at over 2,000,000. There are 32 State branches, 572 city central organizations and 1,173 other local trade and federal labor unions. Some 250 monthly or weekly periodicals are published by the unions, but the *Federationist*, edited by Mr. Gompers, and published monthly, is the official organ. The headquarters of the organization are at 423 G street, N. W., Washington, D. C.

The officers of the Federation are: President, Samuel Gompers, Washington, D. C.; secretary, Frank Morrison, Washington, D. C.; treasurer, John B. Lennon, Bloomington, Ill.; first vice-president, James Duncan, Boston, Mass.; second, John Mitchell, Indianapolis, Ind.; third, James O'Connell, Washington, D. C.; fourth, Max Morris, Denver, Colo.; fifth, Thomas I. Kidd, Chicago, Ill.; sixth, Denis A. Hayes, Philadelphia, Pa.; seventh, Daniel J. Keefe, Detroit, Mich.; eighth, William J. Spencer, Dayton, O.

The following list includes all the international unions that are affiliated with the American Federation, with their secretaries, corrected up to January 26, 1905.

A

- Actors'* National Protective Union of America. Lew Morton, 8 Union Square, New York, N. Y.
Asbestos Workers of America, National Association of Heat, Frost and General Insulators. P. G. Jessen, 3403 Manchester Ave., St. Louis, Mo.

B

- Bakery* and Confectionery Workers International Union of America. F. H. Harzbecker, 268 East North Ave., Chicago, Ill.
Barbers' International Union, Journeymen, Jacob Fischer, Box 517, Indianapolis, Ind.

- Bill Posters* and Billers of America, National Alliance. J. J. McCormick, 1020 Chicago Opera House Block, Chicago, Ill.
- Blacksmiths*, International Brotherhood of. Robert B. Kerr, Suite 570-585 Monon Building, Chicago, Ill.
- Blast Furnace Workers and Smelters of America*, International Association of. Wm. J. Clarke, 128 Sandusky St., Buffalo, N. Y.
- Boiler Makers and Iron Ship Builders of America*, Brotherhood of. W. J. Gilthorpe, Room 406, Portsmouth Building, Kansas City, Kans.
- Bookbinders*, International Brotherhood of. James W. Dougherty, Room 210, 132 Nassau St., New York, N. Y.
- Boot and Shoe Workers' Union*. C. L. Baine, 434 Albany Building, Boston, Mass.
- Brewery Workmen*, International Union of United. Louis Kemper, Rooms 109-110 Odd-Fellows' Temple, corner Seventh and Elm Sts., Cincinnati, Ohio.
- Brick, Tile and Terra Cotta Workers' Alliance*, International. George Hodge, Rooms 509-10 Garden City Block, 56 Fifth Ave., Chicago, Ill.
- Bridge and Structural Iron Workers*, International Association of. J. J. McNamara, 517 Superior Building, Cleveland, Ohio.
- Broom Makers' Union*, International. Oliver A. Brower, 14 Swan St., Amsterdam, N. Y.
- Brushmakers' International Union*. John M. McElroy, 833 Leland St., Philadelphia, Pa.
- Building Employes of America*, International Union of. James McLean, Room 15, 119 Dearborn St., Chicago, Ill.

C

- Carpenters and Joiners of America*, United Brotherhood of. Frank Duffy, P. O. Box 520, Indianapolis, Ind.
- Carpenters and Joiners*, Amalgamated Society of. Thomas Atkinson, 332 East 93d St., New York, N. Y.
- Carriage and Wagon Workers*, International. Charles A. Baustian, Room 304, 30-36 LaSalle St., Chicago, Ill.
- Carvers Association of North America*, International Wood. John S. Henry, 1220 Third Ave., New York, N. Y.
- Car Workers*, International Association of. C. C. Gaskins, Rooms 1205-1206 Star Bldg., 356 Dearborn St., Chicago, Ill.
- Cementworkers*, American Brotherhood of. Thos. K. Ryan, Room 12, 51 Third St., San Francisco, Cal.
- Chainmakers' National Union of the United States of America*. Curtin C. Miller, 1384 W. Broad St., Box 42, Station D, Columbus, Ohio.
- Cigarmakers' International Union of America*. George W. Perkins, Room 820, Monon Block, 320 Dearborn St., Chicago, Ill.
- Clerks' International Protective Association*, Retail. Max Morris, Box 1581, Denver, Colo.
- Cloth Hat and Cap Makers of North America*, United. Max Zuckerman, 74 East Fourth St., New York, N. Y.
- Commercial Telegraphers' Union of America*, The. Wesley Russell, 530 Monon Building, Chicago, Ill.
- Compressed Air Workers*, International Union. John Sheehy, 406 Grand St., Hoboken, N. J.
- Coopers' International Union of North America*. James A. Cable, Meriwether Bldg., Kansas City, Kans.
- Curtain Operatives of America*, Amalgamated Lace. M. F. Sullivan, 3044 Lawrence St., Philadelphia, Pa.
- Cutting Die and Cutter Makers*, International Union of. James Clasen, 34 Lawrence St., Brooklyn, N. Y.

E

- Electrical Workers of America*, International Brotherhood of. H. W. Sherman, Corcoran Bldg., Washington, D. C.
- Elevator Constructors*, International Union of. Henry Snow, 40 Park Ave., Chicago, Ill.
- Engineers*, International Union of Steam. R. A. McKee, 224 Masonic Temple, Peoria, Ill.
- Engravers*, International Association of Watch Case. F. Huber, Box 263, Canton, Ohio.

F

- Firemen*, International Brotherhood of Stationary. C. L. Shamp, Rooms 2-4, 2502 N. 18th St., Omaha, Neb.
- Flour and Cereals Mill Employes*, International Union of, A. E. Kellington, 112 Corn Exchange, Minneapolis, Minn.
- Foundry Employes*, International Brotherhood of. Geo. Bechtold, 1310 Franklin Ave., St. Louis, Mo.
- Freight Handlers and Warehousemen's Union of America*, Interior. J. J. Flynn, Yondorf Bldg., 210 South Halstead St., Chicago, Ill.
- Fur Workers of the United States and Canada*, International Association of. C. E. Carlson, General Delivery, Spokane, Wash.

G

- Garment Workers of America*, United. B. A. Larger, Rooms 116-117 Bible House, New York, N. Y.
- Garment Workers' Union*, International Ladies. John Alex. Dyche, 25-27 Third Ave., New York, N. Y.
- Glass Botile Blowers' Association of the United States and Canada*. William Launer, Rooms 930-931 Witherspoon Bldg., Juniper and Walnut Sts., Philadelphia, Pa.
- Glass House Employes*, International Association. James S. Robb, Room 108, Reeves Bldg., Streator Ill.
- Glass Snappers' National Protective Association of America*, Window. J. A. Benson, Box 643, Kane, Pa.
- Glass Workers*, International Association Amalgamated. William Figolah, 3257 Union Ave., Chicago, Ill.
- Glove Workers' Union of America*, International. A. H. Cosselman, 42 First Ave., Gloversville, N. Y.
- Gold Beaters' National Protective Union of America*, United. W. Norris Batters, 316 Beckett St., Camden, N. J.
- Granite Cutters' National Union*. James Duncan, Hancock Bldg., Quincy, Mass.
- Grinders' National Union*, Table Knife. Richard Odlum, 82 Crown St., Meriden, Conn.

H

- Hatters of North America*, United. Martin Lawlor, 11 Waverly Place, Room 15, New York, N. Y.
- Hod Carriers and Building Laborers' Union of America*, International. H. A. Stemburgh, Room 622, 56 Fifth Ave., Chicago, Ill.
- Horse-Shoers of United States and Canada*, International Union of Journeymen. Rody Kenehan, 1548 Wazee St., Denver, Colo.
- Hotel and Restaurant Employes' Internatonal Alliance and Bartenders' International League of America*. Jere L. Sullivan, Commercial Tribune Bldg., Cincinnati, Ohio.

I

- Iron, Steel and Tin Workers*, Amalgamated Association of. John Williams, House Bldg., Smithfield and Water Sts., Pittsburg, Pa.

J

Jewelry Workers' Union of America, International. William F. Shade, 3032 North Eighth St., Philadelphia, Pa.

L

Lathers, International Union of Wood, Wire and Metal. Willaim McSorley, 518 Superior Bldg., 345 Superior St., Cleveland, Ohio.

Laundry Workers' International Union, Shirt, Waist and. Miss Hannah A. Mahoney, P. O. Box 11, Station I, Troy, N. Y.

Leather Workers on Horse Goods, United Brotherhood of. J. J. Pfeiffer, 435 Gibraltar Bldg., Kansas City, Mo.

Leather Workers' Union of America, Amalgamated. John Roach, Room 52, Forrest Building, South Fourth St., Philadelphia, Pa.

Longshoremen's Association, International. Henry C. Barter, 407-408 Elks Temple, Detroit, Mich.

M

Machine Printers and Color Mixers of the United States, National Association of. C. Casey, 425 Tenth Ave., New York City.

Machinists, International Association of. George Preston, 908-914 G. St., N. W., McGill Bldg., Washington, D. C.

Maintenance of Way Employees, International Brotherhood of. C. Boyle, 304 Benoist Bldg., St. Louis, Mo.

Marble Workers, International Association of. Henry Roberts, 273 Porter St., Detroit, Mich.

Mattress, Spring, and Bedding Workers' International Union. C. F. Myers, Station R, Cincinnati, Ohio.

Meat Cutters and Butcher Workmen of North America, Amalgamated. Homer D. Call, Lock Box 317, Syracuse, N. Y.

Metal Polishers, Buffers, Platers and Brass Workers' Union of North America. James J. Cullen, Germania Bank Bldg., Spring and Bowery Sts., New York, N. Y.

Metal Workers' International Association, Amalgamated Sheet. John E. Bray, 313 Nelson Bldg., Kansas City, Mo.

Metal Workers' International Union, United. C. O. Sherman, 148 West Madison St., Chicago, Ill.

Mine Managers and Assistants' Mutual Aid Association, National. William Scaife, Springfield, Ill.

Mine Workers of America, United. William B. Wilson, 1106 State Life Bldg., Indianapolis, Ind.

Molders' Union of North America, Iron. E. J. Denney, 530 Walnut St., Cincinnati, Ohio.

Musicians, American Federation of. Owen Miller, 20 Allen Bldg., Broadway and Market Sts., St. Louis, Mo.

O

Oil and Gas Well Workers, International Brotherhood of. Jay H. Mullen, 330 South Soto St., Los Angeles, Cal.

P

Painters, Decorators and Paperhangers of America, Brotherhood of. J. C. Skemp, Drawer 199, Lafayette, Ind.

Paper Box Workers, International Union of. Victor Kofod, 25 Third Ave., New York, N. Y.

Paper Makers of America, United Brotherhood of. Thomas Mellor, 57 Smith Bldg., Watertown, N. Y.

Pattern Makers' League of North America. J. B. McNerney, 25 Third Ave., New York N. Y.

- Paving Cutters' Union of the United States of America and Canada.* William Dodge, 87 East State St., Albion, N. Y.
- Photo-Engravers' Union of North America, International.* H. E. Gudbrandsen, 282 Hodge Ave., Cleveland, Ohio.
- Piano and Organ Workers' Union of America, International.* Charles Dold, 849 North Irving Ave., Chicago, Ill.
- Plate Printers' Union of North America, International Steel and Copper.* T. L. Mahan, 319 S St., N. E. Washington, D. C.
- Plumbers, Gas Fitters, Steam Fitters and Steam Fitters' Helpers, of United States and Canada, United Association of.* L. W. Tilden, 506-507-508 Bush Temple of Music, Chicago, Ill.
- Potters, National Brotherhood of Operative.* T. J. Duffy, Box 50, East Liverpool, Ohio.
- Powder and High Explosive Workers of America, United.* James G. McCrindle, Gracedale, Pa.
- Print Cutters' Association of America, National.* Thos. I. G. Eastwood, 480 West 165th St., New York, N. Y.
- Printers' Association of America, Machine Textile.* George Udell, 368 Branch Ave., Providence, R. I.
- Printing Pressmen's Union, International.* Martin P. Higgins, 35 Washington St., Charlestown, Mass.

Q

- Quarryworkers' International Union of North America.* P. F. McCarthy, Barre, Vt.

R

- Railroad Telegraphers, Order of.* L. W. Quick, Star Building, St. Louis, Mo.
- Railway Employers of America, Amalgamated Association of Street and Electric.* W. D. Mahon, 45 Hodges Block, Detroit, Mich.
- Railway Expressmen of America, Brotherhood of.* F. E. Modie, Suite 602-603, 56 Fifth Ave., Garden City Block, Chicago, Ill.
- Rubber Workers' Union of America, Amalgamated.* Clarence E. Akerstrom, 25 Grant St., Cambridge, Mass.

S

- Saw Smith's National Union.* Charles G. Wertz, 351 South Illinois St., Indianapolis, Ind.
- Seamen's Union, International, of America.* William H. Frazier, 1½ A Lewis St., Boston, Mass.
- Shingle Weavers' Union of America, International.* J. E. Campbell, 2818 Pacific Ave., Everett, Wash.
- Shipwrights' Joiners and Caulkers of America, National Union of.* Thomas Durett, 108 Marshall St., Elizabeth, N. J.
- Slate and Tile Roofers' Union of America, International.* Wm. W. Clark, 1303 St. Louis Ave., East St. Louis, Ill.
- Slate Workers, International Union of.* Robert J. Griffith, Box 275, Bangor, Pa.
- Spinners' Association, Cotton Mule.* Samuel Ross, Box 367, New Bedford, Mass.
- Stage Employes' International Alliance, Theatrical.* Lee M. Hart, care of Bartl's Hotel, State and Harrison Sts., Chicago, Ill.
- Stereotypers and Electrotypers' Union of North America, International.* George W. Williams, 534 Warren St., Roxbury District, Boston, Mass.
- Stove Mounters' International Union.* J. H. Kaefler, 166 Concord Ave., Detroit, Mich.

T

- Tackmakers' International Union.* A. E. Lincoln, Fairhaven, Mass.
- Tailors' Union of America, Journeymen.* John B. Lennon, Box 597, Bloomington, Ill.

- Teamsters*, International Brotherhood of. Edward L. Turley, Room 51, 147 Market St., Indianapolis, Ind.
- Textile Workers* of America, United. Albert Hibbert, Box 713, Fall River, Mass.
- Tile Layers* and Helpers' Union, International Ceramic, Mosaic and Encaustic. James P. Reynolds, 108 Corry St., Allegheny, Pa.
- Tin Plate Workers'* Protective Association of America, International. Chas. E. Lawyer, Rooms 20-21, Reilly Block, Wheeling, W. Va.
- Tip Printers*, International Brotherhood of. T. J. Carolan, 70 Bruce St., Newark, N. J.
- Tobacco Workers'* International Union. E. Lewis Evans, Room 56, American National Bank Bldg., Third and Main Sts., Louisville, Ky.
- Travellers' Goods* and Leather Novelty Workers' International Union of America. Charles J. Gille, 1539 North Eighteenth St., St. Louis, Mo.
- Typographical* Union, International. J. W. Bramwood, Room 640-50, Newton Claypool Bldg., Indianapolis, Ind.

U

- Upholsterers'* International Union of North America. Anton J. Engel, 28 Greenwood Terrace, Chicago, Ill.

W

- Weavers'* Amalgamated Association, Elastic Goring. Ephraim Ashley, 42 Lowell St., Brockton, Mass.
- Weavers'* Protective Association, American Wire. E. E. Desmond, 139 Skillman Ave., Brooklyn, N. Y.
- Wood Workers'* International Union of America, Amalgamated. John G. Meiler, 616-617 Garden City Block, Chicago, Ill.

WOMEN'S TRADE UNIONS.

The Women's National Trade Union League was organized in Boston November, 1903, during the convention of the American Federation of Labor. The organization was brought about through the joint efforts of friends of trade unions and the delegates representing the following trades in which women are employed: Boot and Shoe Workers International Union, United Textile Int. Union, Meat and Butcher Workmen Int. Union, United Garment Workers Int. Union, Retail Clerks Int. Union, Women Garment Workers Int. Union.

Members and officers of the National Ex. Board are: President, Mrs. Mary Morton Kehen, Boston; Vice-President, Miss Jane Addams, Chicago; Secretary, Mrs. Mary Kenney O'Sullivan; Treasurer, Miss Mary Donovan, Lynn, Mass; Ex. Board, Miss Lillian D. Wald, Miss Leonora O'Reilly, New York; Misses Mary McDowell, Ellen Lindstrom, Chicago, Ill; Mrs. Mary Fratas, Lowell, Mass.

The object of the Women's Trade Union League is to assist in the organization of women wage workers into trade unions affiliated with the American Federation of Labor.

The constitution requires that a majority of the Nat. Ex. Board must be trade union women carrying their working cards.

State Leagues were organized in Chicago, New York, and Boston.

The State League in Chicago assisted the Kabo corset workers while on strike, and placed a number in domestic service in Chicago and suburbs. They also assisted the women employed in the stock yards during their struggle.

The Massachusetts State League brought from Fall River one hundred and thirty women during their strike and placed them in domestic service, more than one hundred leaving the mills permanently.

The New York State League has recently assisted in the strike of the children in the box factories. Miss Gertrude Barnum has been appointed National Organizer, and began her services in that capacity January 1, 1905.

THE CITIZENS INDUSTRIAL ASSOCIATION.

BY EDWARD H. DAVIS, SECRETARY.

The Citizens Industrial Association of America is a national federation of local, State and national organizations that are interested in the maintenance of the open shop principle in industry. The association contains quite a number of national and State trade organizations, but its principal membership is made up of local employers' associations and citizens' alliances.

During 1903 and 1904 local associations were formed in nearly all the large industrial cities and also in many of the smaller ones. The principal organization affiliated with the Citizens Industrial Association is the National Association of Manufacturers, which includes in its membership over 3,000 of the larger manufacturing establishments of the country. The Citizens' Industrial Association through its various organizations represents several hundred thousand of the manufacturers and business men of the United States.

The organization stands for individualism. It stands for the right of every man to dispose of his time, labor and property as he sees fit so long as he does not infringe upon the equal rights of another. It is opposed to joint agreements, government arbitration in labor disputes and to all plans for the settlement of labor strife which eliminate the right of every man to work where, when and for what he pleases and the right of an employer to hire whom he pleases and for what he pleases. The association does not deny the right of labor or any other class of citizens to organize for their mutual benefit and protection, but it is opposed to any organization interfering in any manner whatsoever with the constitutional rights of those who do not belong to that organization. The organization is also opposed to restriction in individual output, limitation of apprenticeships, and arbitrary interference with the hours of daily labor. It is in fact opposed to paternalistic or socialistic measures of any kind whatsoever being foisted upon the country either by the government or by organized labor.

The association aims to accomplish its ends through organization and propaganda. Its chief endeavor is to influence public opinion, seeking to offset the work of socialists and agitators, compelling the enforcement of law in times of strike and protesting against legislation designed to abridge the rights of employers and independent workmen.

During the year 1904 fully 1,200 business concerns in different parts of the country abandoned the making of closed shop agreements and declared that the open shop should prevail in their establishments. These results were largely brought about by the agitation incident to the Citizens' Industrial movement.

The present officials of the organization are: David M. Parry, Pres., Indianapolis, Ind.; J. C. Craig, 1st vice-president, Denver, Colo.; J. T. Hoile, 2d vice-president, Brooklyn, N. Y.; George A. Davis, 3d vice-president, Grand Rapids, Mich.; A. C. Rosencranz, treasurer, Evansville, Ind., and Edward H. Davis, secretary, Indianapolis, Ind.

There is an executive committee composed of John Kirby, Jr., Dayton, Ohio; C. W. Post, Battle Creek, Mich.; Berkley R. Merwin, New York City; J. W. Van Cleave, St. Louis, Mo.; George B. Hugo, Boston, Mass.; W. C. Shepherd, Wilkesbarre, Pa.; Euclid Martin, Omaha, Neb.; Frederick W. Job, Chicago, Ill.; J. L. Record, Minneapolis, Minn., and F. C. Nunemacher, Louisville, Ky.

The association was organized in Chicago, October 29 and 30, 1903, by a mass meeting of over 300 representatives of organizations throughout the United States. An adjourned meeting of this convention was held in Indianapolis February 22, 1904. The second annual convention was held in New York City November 29 and 30, 1904, there being an attendance of about 400 delegates representing all parts of the country.

THE NATIONAL CIVIC FEDERATION.

An organization which grew out of conferences on arbitration and conciliation, held under the auspices of the Chicago Civic Federation in December, 1900. At this conference much interest was taken in the discussion of compulsory arbitration, the result being a decision that for the United States, at least, the proper line of progress should be in the direction, not of compulsory arbitration, but of voluntary conciliation. A committee of twelve members was appointed, representing Labor, Capital and the General Public, and this committee issued an appeal to the American people recommending the adoption of annual or semi-annual joint trade agreements and the creation of joint boards of conciliation. This committee met and organized in January, 1901, and was able to avert a threatened anthracite coal strike by securing a conference of the operators and the mine workers.

OFFICERS, 1905.

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|---|---|
| AUGUST BELMONT, <i>President.</i> | H. H. VREELAND, <i>Chairman Welfare Department.</i> |
| SAMUEL GOMPERS, <i>1st Vice-President.</i> | FRANCIS L. ROBBINS, JOHN MITCHELL, <i>Chairmen Trade Agreement Committee.</i> |
| OSCAR S. STRAUS, <i>2d Vice-President.</i> | |
| HENRY PHIPPS, <i>Chairman Ways and Means Committee.</i> | RALPH M. EASLEY, <i>Chairman Executive Council.</i> |
| CORNELIUS N. BLISS, <i>Treasurer</i> | |
| C. A. MOORE, <i>Chairman Conciliation Committee.</i> | SAMUEL B. DONNELLY, <i>Secretary.</i> |

281 Fourth Avenue, New York City.

The basis of organization of the National Civic Federation is the principle of conciliation as distinguished from arbitration, and the constitution makes it clear that the Civic Federation, as such, shall not arbitrate any disputes. The settlement and prevention of strikes and lockouts is in charge of conciliation committees of the National organization and of the local organizations, five of which have been established in New York, Chicago, Cleveland, St. Louis, and Denver, and others are in process of organization in other industrial centers. During the three years in which the National Civic Federation has been engaged in the settlement of questions, it has dealt successfully with over three hundred cases and in eighteen its efforts have either partially or wholly failed. The most essential part of the work is in bringing together the parties to a controversy, and that once accomplished they generally settle their differences entirely unaided. In only one or two cases have the committees been called upon to assist in securing arbitrators.

DEPARTMENTS OF WORK.

Department of Trade Agreements, Department of Conciliation and Arbitration, Department of Welfare Work, Department of Industrial Economics, Department of Trade Sections, Department of Organization. The formation of the department to promote trade agreements followed a conference upon that subject held in New York City May 7, 1904. Those who took part were employers, individual, and representing 70 trade organizations, embracing all the basic industries, such as the production of coal, iron and steel, and transportation; and employes representing national or local labor organizations. This gathering thus represented hundreds of millions of capital and more than 2,500,000 wage earners.

TRADE AGREEMENTS.

BY JOHN R. COMMONS.

The term "Trade Agreement" is used to designate an agreement covering wages, hours and conditions of labor, between an association or union of workmen and an association of employers. An essential part of the agreement is

the clause providing that there shall be no strikes or lockouts during the term of the agreement, usually one year, but that all disputes relating to interpretation of, or to matters not covered by, the agreement shall be settled by conference between representatives of the two associations. Sometimes it is provided that in case these representatives cannot agree they shall call in an outsider or umpire. The term Arbitration (See *Arbitration*) is sometimes inaccurately applied to the trade agreement, but arbitration is strictly the reference of a dispute to a disinterested outsider, whereas trade agreements are nearly always drawn up by the representatives of the parties. An exception to this rule was the arbitration of the Anthracite Coal Strike in 1902, when a commission appointed by the President drew up a trade agreement, which the parties agreed in advance to accept for a period of three years. The term conciliation is also often used with reference to a trade agreement, but conciliation is properly mediation by outside parties with the object of inducing the two parties to enter upon a trade agreement of their own framing. The principal trade agreement systems at present in vogue are as follows:

Iron and Steel Industry, between the Amalgamated Association of Iron and Steel Workers and such companies as the United States Steel Corporation and Republic Iron and Steel Company. This system originated in 1865 and has continued to the present time with three or four interruptions.

Bituminous Coal Industry, since 1898. Several agreements covering separate competitive fields, the principal one being that of Pennsylvania, Ohio, Indiana and Illinois, between the United Mine Workers of America and different Associations of Coal Operators. Anthracite Coal Industry, between the United Mine Workers and the largest anthracite coal producers since 1902.

Longshoremen's agreements between the Longshoremen, Marine and Transport Workers, and different associations on the Great Lakes and Gulf and Pacific Coasts, of Dock managers lumber and grain carriers, and others. Since 1897.

Stove Industry, between the Molders' Union and the National Stove Founders' Defense Association. Since 1891.

Newspaper publishers and International Typographical Union. Since 1899
Railroad Brotherhoods and nearly all railway systems.

The United Garment Workers, United Brewers, Hatters, and Cigar Make's, have agreements, or contracts, with individual establishments granting the use of the Union label.

In the building Trades there are many hundred local agreements, the bricklayers having begun the practice in New York in 1884.

Lithographic Trades Alliance, and the Lithographers' Association (National)
The Theatrical Managers and the Musical Protective Union.

Very numerous local agreements.

Examples of the endurance of the severest tests on these agreements are the contracts between the associated bituminous coal operators and the United Mine Workers of America, and the contract between the Lake Carriers' Association and the International Longshoremen's Union. Each party to these agreements has undergone successfully the strain of granting higher wages on the one side and of accepting lower wages on the other. The acceptance of a lower scale by the bituminous coal miners prevented a strike last year, extending through Pennsylvania, Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois, whose possible consequences no man could foresee, since it might literally have stopped the commerce and paralyzed the industries of the country.

The National Founders' Association, composed of 600 of the largest manufacturers in the United States, has maintained for twelve years a trade agreement with the National Iron Moulders' Union. This contract, renewed annually, has withstood successfully the severest tests, both of advances and reductions in wages, two of these strains having been especially severe. The executive committee of each organization attends the annual convention of the other.

The manager of the Lake fleets and shipping interests of the United States Steel Corporation, Harry Coulby, recently said:

"There are no workers harder to manage than the longshoremen. Yet the discipline of their organization is so thorough and their sense of honor is so high that, when contracts are signed, the employers know just what they can count on. If a new local union attempts to violate its contract, the national organization protects the employers. Had it not been for the steadying influence of this organization and the effect of its collective contract, the business of lake transportation would have suffered disaster during the past five years."

ARBITRATION—GOVERNMENTAL.

BY JOHN R. COMMONS.

By an Act of 1888, amended in 1898, Congress provided that whenever labor controversy arises on interstate carriers, either party may request the intervention of the Chairman of the Interstate Commerce Commission and the Commissioner of Labor. These officials shall at once use their best efforts by mediation and conciliation to bring about a settlement, and if unsuccessful, shall try to persuade the parties to submit to arbitration. The law is not compulsory and has never been invoked.

There are States which have created permanent State Boards of Arbitration with powers of mediation and conciliation similar to those of the United States law, except that in most cases the boards have the power to intercede without waiting for invitation from either of the parties. In two States, New York and Indiana, the board has the additional power of subpoenaing witness and books, and making a recommendation, which, however, is not binding. In Indiana the law goes further and provides that if the parties agree beforehand to abide by the decision, the State Board shall convene under the presidency of a judge of the circuit court, and the award shall be entered on the court records and be enforced by the usual court procedure. This is the nearest approach to compulsory arbitration in the United States. The States having boards of mediation, arbitration or conciliation are as follows: Colorado, Connecticut, Idaho, Illinois, Indiana, Kansas, Louisiana, Massachusetts, Michigan, New Jersey, New York, Ohio, Utah, Wisconsin. In four States, Iowa, Pennsylvania, Maryland and Texas, there is provision for local boards under direction of the court of common pleas, but these laws, together with laws providing for State boards in California, Louisiana, Minnesota, Missouri, Montana, North Dakota and Wyoming are dead letters. See Report Industrial Commission, Vol. XVII, pp 423-463.

TRADE UNIONS IN EUROPE.

From the American Federationist.

Great Britain and Ireland	1,922,780	Switzerland	70,000
Germany	1,330,662	Sweden	69,351
France	614,204	Spain	46,896
Austria	177,594	Hungary	41,148
Italy	150,000	Holland	30,000
Belgium	10,000	Norway	17,972
Denmark	88,098		

The number of organized workmen in proportion to the whole population, is the highest in Great Britain, Denmark and Germany.

DEMOCRACY BY TRUSTS.

BY TALCOTT WILLIAMS.

When a newspaper draughtsman with a gift for caricature and an artist's sympathy for the fears and feelings of his fellowmen, desires to-day to touch a popular chord, he portrays "corporations" or "trusts" as vast ogres or as a many-tentacled octopus before which the honest citizen and luckless individual cowers in helplessness and dismay. Is this the truth? Three relations every man has: one to the State that rules; one to the Faith that inspires; and one to the Economy that supports. In two of these, in State and in church, a democracy based on free selfhood is already supreme. There are States and there are churches where this is not yet the fact; yet in this direction unquestionably they tend. How about business? Does it tend toward Democracy? Unless it does this, the stars in their courses fight against it. Let us look at the fact. Corporations and trusts to-day rule business. Few realize or comprehend to-day the extent to which the entire property of the country is passing under a direct corporate title. It may be doubted if a century ago in this country more than 1 per cent. of its wealth was held by a corporate title. To-day railroad capital, shares and bonds, and the capital of the new manufacturing and trading corporations known as trusts and various forms of public indebtedness aggregate some \$25,000,000,000. The aggregate listing of the London Stock Exchange is about \$30,000,000,000. From 1866 to 1904, the population in the United States has a little more than doubled; wealth has quadrupled. How is it owned? It is popularly supposed to be concentrated. The fact seems the opposite. The stage coach lines of a hundred years ago were owned by small firms and had hundreds of employees. The railroads of the United States, in 1902, had 1,189,315 employees, and the number of persons owning shares and bonds were 950,000, as estimated in 1897. It is altogether probable to-day that the number of railroad employees is little greater than the number of share and bondholders an equality which never existed earlier in transportation. The older the company the more numerous the shareholders. The Boston & Albany in 1894 had 8,220 shareholders and 5,902 employees. The Pennsylvania Railroad had in 1880, 13,867 shareholders; in 1890, 21,200; in 1904, 44,500. The average holdings in 1880 were 99.33; in 1884, 86.73; in 1889, 108.72; in 1893, 97.20; in 1903, 60. The New York, New Haven & Hartford had, in 1887, 3,545 shareholders, with a capital of \$15,500,000; in 1904, 11,032, with a capital of \$54,685,000. Holders and capital have trebled together. All corporations show this tendency. The American Express Company, founded by two or three men, had recently 4,080 shareholders, 40 shares to the holder. The shareholders in the Bell Telephone Company were 3,639 in 1896 and 6,882 in 1898. In 1881, the Western Union Telegraph Company had 1,701 shareholders; in 1904, 12,242. The Standard Oil Company when first organized had 45 shareholders; in 1901, it had 4,000, and the number now is considerably larger. When the Sugar Trust was first organized, in 1885, the refineries consolidated had not over 250 to 300 owners; at its last meeting the American Sugar Refining Company had 11,000 shareholders. The iron and steel establishments of the country in 1870 were owned by not over 1,500 persons. A decade ago, when many of the establishments were under corporate management, the owners were from 5,000 to 10,000 at a most liberal estimate. The Steel Trust was organized with 15,000 common and 10,000 preferred shareholders in the companies it absorbed. In ten years this number has trebled. The National Banks, in 1876, were owned by 146,000 persons, with a capital of \$501,568,564. In 1902, their capital had risen to not quite one-half, or \$701,990,554. The owners were 330,124, over double.

People to-day, also, contrary to frequent assertion, have greater chance of employment. From 1880 to 1900, those engaged in gainful occupations in-

creased one-half faster than the population. Population grew from 50,155,783 to 76,303,387; those engaged in remunerative work have risen from 17,392,099 to 29,285,921. In 1880, they were 29 per cent. of the population; in 1900, they were 38 per cent. The family, firm or small corporation holds the gate against ability. The trust opens it. Thirty years ago, the scientific and technical schools saw their graduates hunting jobs. To-day the trust hunts them. The schools cannot graduate them fast enough. The entire class will be engaged before Commencement.

How about control of wealth? Control is security and power. Control and ownership are no longer wedded. Here again facts are against the common view. In twenty-four trusts which Prof. J. D. Jenks examined there were only 5 in which the five largest owners held a majority of the common stock, and but 8 in which this was true of the preferred. In not one did any one man hold a majority. Mr. J. D. Rockefeller is not credited with holding a majority of Standard Oil. In many industrials and railroads to-day the governing group no longer holds a majority.

Where are the evils of the trust? Secrecy, irresponsible autocracy, and personal privilege. What is this but the old work of despotism? The absence of corporation reports matches the closed and personal public treasuries of this despot. It is all parallel to the evolution of the State. First, an era of plundering cutthroat competition. Peace is created by some strong man. His empire is organized. There grow up suffrages and rights. The real issue is that the State has failed to extend over these new corporations the authority of its own laws. We have to-day the choice of old—a struggle for liberty or the acceptance of personal despotism. Out of liberty alone can come lasting security. A sound companies act in Great Britain has bred a spirit and habit of responsibility. Such an act will come here. The trust, rightly controlled by the State, instead of rendering more difficult the position of the average individual man, with only the average initiative and average earnings, gives him the only hope he has had from the beginning of a general share in the profit making activities of society.

If with Sir Henry Main we can say that the progress of society is from status to contract, so from immobile titles indissolubly associated with the family bonds to mobile titles created by corporate ownership—these are the twin changes, parallel, analogous, and similar, through which persons and property pass in the development of society. Out of it will come a democratic, industrial economy, giving, as has the State, initiative opportunity and security to all industrial citizens.

FAILURES IN THE UNITED STATES AND AGGREGATE LIABILITIES.

FROM DUN'S REVIEW, NEW YORK.

CALENDAR YEARS	No. of failures	No. of business concerns	Per cent of failures	Liabilities	CALENDAR YEARS	No. of failures	No. of business concerns	Per cent of failures	Liabilities
1879..	6,658	702,157	0.95	\$98,149,053	1891..	12,273	1,142,951	1.07	\$189,868,638
1880..	4,735	746,823	.63	65,752,000	1892..	10,344	1,172,705	.88	114,044,167
1881..	5,582	781,689	.71	81,155,932	1893..	15,242	1,193,113	1.28	346,779,889
1882..	6,738	822,256	.82	101,547,564	1894..	13,885	1,114,174	1.25	172,992,856
1883..	9,184	863,993	1.06	172,874,172	1895..	13,197	1,209,282	1.09	173,196,060
1884..	10,968	904,759	1.21	226,343,427	1896..	15,088	1,151,579	1.31	226,096,834
1885..	10,637	919,990	1.16	124,220,321	1897..	13,351	1,058,521	1.26	154,332,071
1886..	9,834	969,841	1.01	114,644,119	1898..	12,186	1,005,830	1.10	130,662,899
1887..	9,634	994,281	.90	167,560,944	1899..	9,337	1,147,595	.81	90,879,889
1888..	10,679	1,046,662	1.02	123,829,973	1900..	10,774	1,174,300	.92	138,495,673
1889..	10,882	1,051,140	1.04	148,784,337	1901..	11,002	1,219,242	.90	113,092,376
1890..	10,907	1,110,590	.98	189,856,964	1902..	11,615	1,253,172	.93	117,476,769

In 1903 there were 12,069 failures, with liabilities of \$155,444,185; in 1904, 12,199 failures and liabilities of \$155,444,185.

SOCIAL PROGRESS

SOCIAL SETTLEMENTS.

We print as follows statistics of 115 Settlements in the United States. It is not a complete list, but is all from whom we have had returns, and is a very large proportion of the whole. The statistics too, are not complete in all details, but afford a large amount of information. Some of the queries have been differently understood by various settlements, but we give their answers as made to us. The fact, however, must be remembered in making comparisons between settlements. Nor must too much attention be given to the numbers. Miss Adams writes us protesting against the tendency to identify the settlement with its machinery. This protest is needed. It is the life, not the wheels, that counts. Yet wheels help, provided the life is in them, and it may be an inspiration to know that 748 persons are residents in settlements besides those not reporting, and that at least 128 men and 370 women give all their time to settlement work; that these settlements report 1,558 clubs and 1,573 classes with 95,744 attendants; that \$2,652,900 are invested in 66 settlements, and that 95 settlements spend annually \$677,146, which would be some \$800,000 per year for all settlements. The reports for the kindergarten work are quite incomplete, through a fault in the blank sent out.

1. Alabama, Calhoun, Lowndes Co., Calhoun Colored School Set'm't, P.D. Mingham, C. R. Thorn.
2. Alabama, Huntsville, Virginia Hall, Jessie M. House.
3. California, Los Angeles, 428 Alpine St., Castelar Settlement.
4. California, Oakland, 709 Linden St., Oakland Social Settlement, Minnie P. Smith.
5. California, San Francisco, 86 South Park, S. F. Settlement Association, Lucille Eaves.
6. Connecticut, Hartford, 15 North St., Hartford Social Settlement, Mary G. Jones.
7. Connecticut, New Haven, 153 Franklin St., Lowell House, Dr. Julia E. Teele.
8. Delaware, Wilmington, 831 Church St., People's Settlement, Sarah W. Pyle.
9. District of Columbia, Washington, 456 & 468 N.S.W., Neighborhood House, Mrs. E.W. Weller.
10. District of Columbia, Washington, 118 M.S.W., Social Settlement, Mrs. S. C. Fernandis.
11. Georgia, Atlanta, 74 S. Boulevard, Methodist Settlement Home, Rosa Lowe.
12. Illinois, Chicago, 474 W. North Ave., Association House, Carrie B. Wilson.
13. Illinois, Chicago, 180 Grand Ave., The Commons, Rev. Graham Taylor.
14. Illinois, Chicago, 134 Newberry Ave., Elizabeth E. Marcy Home, C. J. Hewitt.
15. Illinois, Chicago, 33d Place, Fellowship House, Mrs. M. H. Perkins.
16. Illinois, Chicago, 305 W. Van Buren, Forward Movement, Mary E. Dix.
17. Illinois, Chicago, 2014 Archer, Francis E. Clark Settlement.
18. Illinois, Chicago, 867 W. 22d, Gad's Hill Center, Mrs. L. A. Martin.
19. Illinois, Chicago, 171 W. 15th, Henry Booth House, Emma Pischel.
20. Illinois, Chicago, 335 S. Halsted St., Hull House, Jane Addams.
21. Illinois, Chicago, 3825 Dearborn, Institute Church and Social Settlement, J. M. Townsend.
22. Illinois, Chicago, 270 Maxwell St. Settlement, M. Lua Clarke.
23. Illinois, Chicago, 1224 W. 67th St., Neighborhood House.
24. Illinois, Chicago, Noble and Augusta, Northwestern University Settlement.
25. Illinois, Chicago, 44-46 Vedder St., Olivet House, Rev. M. B. Bau.
26. Illinois, Chicago, 4638 Ashland Ave., University of Chicago Settlement, Mary E. McDowel.
27. Indiana, Indianapolis, 873 Colton St., Flanner Guild, B. J. Morgan.
28. Indiana, Terre Haute, 24 N. First St., Terre Haute Social Settlement, Miss E. B. Warren.
29. Iowa, Des Moines, 720 Mulberry, Roadside Settlement, Flora Dunlap.
30. Kansas, Kansas City, 43 N. First St., Bethel Home Settlement, Rev. L. C. Halbert.
31. Kentucky, Louisville, 834 E. Jefferson St., Louisville Settlement House, Mary M. Ogilvee.
32. Kentucky, Louisville, 530 First St., Neighborhood House, M. Eleanor Tarrant.
33. Louisiana, New Orleans, 1202 Annunciation, Kingsley House, Eleanor McMain.
34. Maine, Lewiston and Auburn, 141 Middle St., Social Settlement, Elsie C. Nutt.
35. Maine, Portland, 75 Spring St., Fraternity House, Agnes Daley.
36. Maryland, Baltimore, 816 W. Lombard, Lawrence House, Alice E. Robbins.
37. Maryland, Baltimore, 1504 Fort Ave., Locust Point Social Set'm't, Jane E. Robbins. *Pro tem.*
38. Massachusetts, Boston, 112 Salem St., Civic Service House, Meyer Bloomfield.
39. Massachusetts, Boston, 93 Tyler St., Denison House, Helena S. Dudley.
40. Massachusetts, Boston, 87 Poplar St., Elizabeth Peabody House, Caroline F. Brown.
41. Massachusetts, Boston, 12 Carver St., Ellis Memorial, Miss J. R. McCrady.
42. Massachusetts, Boston, 36 Hull St., Epworth Settlement, Helen M. Newall.
43. Massachusetts, Boston, 24 S. Russell St., Frances E. Willard Settlement, Caroline M. Caswell.
44. Massachusetts, Boston, 6-8 Garland St., Hale House, A. Isabel Winslow.
45. Massachusetts, Boston, 23 Carolina Ave., Helen Weld House, Sally E. Beck.
46. Massachusetts, Boston, 70-80 Emerald St., Lincoln House, John D. Adams.
47. Massachusetts, Boston, Mall St. and Dayton Ave., Roxbury House, Sarah P. Browning.
48. Massachusetts, Boston, 37 N. Bennet St., Social Service House, Mrs. Z. J. S. Brown.
49. Massachusetts, Boston, 20 Union Park, South End House, Robert A. Woods.
50. Massachusetts, Boston, 2 Decatur St., St. Stephen's House.
51. Massachusetts, Boston, 138 Eustis St., Tech House, W. Green.
52. Massachusetts, Malden, 179 Harvard St., Stephen Durkee Archer Helping Hand House, Stella Archer Maloney and Cart. A. Maloney.
53. Michigan, Detroit, 519 Franklin St., Franklin St. Settlement, Margaret Stansbury.
54. Michigan, Grand Rapids, 425 Ottawa St., Bissell House, Mrs. Mary Williams.

55. Minnesota, Minneapolis, 1616 Washington Ave., N. Unity House, Caroline M. Crosby.
56. Minnesota, St. Paul, 379-381 Eighth St., The Commons, Eleanor Hanson.
57. Missouri, Kansas City, 1901 McGee St., Franklin Institute and Social Settlement, J. M. Hanson.
58. Missouri St. Louis, 1227 N. Broadway, Neighborhood House, S. Bertha Carrington.
59. Missouri, St. Louis, 1202 S. 7th St., Sloan Mission, Rev. R. P. Basler.
60. Missouri, St. Louis, 6th and Rutger Sts., St. Stephen's House, Rev. H. W. Mizner.
61. Missouri, St. Louis, Third and Victor Sts., Victor St. Mission.
62. Nebraska, Lincoln, 200 S. 20th St., College Settlement, C. E. Prevey.
63. New Jersey, Jersey City, 174 Grand St., Whittier House, Cornelia F. Bradford.
64. New Jersey, Orange, 35 Tompkins St., Orange Valley Social Settlement, Adelaide Crommelin.
65. New Jersey, Summit, 511 Morris Ave., Neighborhood House, Grace E. Paine.
66. New York, Brooklyn, 49 Warren St., Friendly House, Emma L. Deeson.
67. New York, Brooklyn, 85 Java St., Greenpoint Settlement, Laura A. Steel.
68. New York, Brooklyn, 29 Front St., Italian Settlement, W. E. Davenport.
69. New York, Brooklyn, 245 Concord St., Maxwell House, John H. Chase.
70. New York, Brooklyn, 333 Bleecker St., Ridgewood Household Association, Miss S. E. Hodges.
71. New York, Brooklyn, 95 Lawrence St., Willoughby House, Anna B. Van Nost.
72. New York, Buffalo, Erie St., Remington Gospel Settlement, Mary E. Remington.
73. New York, Buffalo, 404 Seneca St., Welcome Hall, Louise Montgomery.
74. New York, Buffalo, 424 Adams St., Westminster House, Emily S. Harkness.
75. New York, N.Y. City, 283 Remington St., Alfred Corning Clark Neighborhood House, Mary L. Brewer.
76. New York, New York City, 312 W. 54th St., Amity Church Set'm't, Rev. Leighton Williams.
77. New York, New York City, 147 Ave. B, Christodora House, Miss C. I. MacColl.
78. New York, New York City, 540 E. 76th St., East Side House Settlement, Wm. H. Kelly.
79. New York, New York City, 130 Stanton St., Epiphany Chapel, W. Weir Gillis.
80. New York, New York City, 216 E. 128th St., Frank Bottome Memorial, M. Elida Coburn.
81. New York, New York City, 253 W. 17th St., Gordon House, Wm. A. Clark.
82. New York, New York City, 211 Clinton St., Gospel Settlement, Harriet Irwin.
83. New York, New York City, 414 E. 14th St., Grace Church Settlement, Geo. H. Bottome.
84. New York, New York City, 26 Jones St., Greenwich House, Mrs. M. K. Simkhovitch.
85. New York, New York City, 413 W. 46th St., Hartley House, Helen F. Greene.
86. New York, New York City, 265 Henry St., Henry Street Settlement, Lillian D. Wald.
87. New York, New York City, 48-50 Henry St., Jacob A. Riis Neighborhood Settlement, Charlotte A. Waterbury.
88. New York, New York City, 432-36 Third Ave., Madison St. Ch. House, Lee W. Beattie.
89. New York, New York City, 95 Rivington St., N. Y. College Settlement, Elizabeth S. Williams.
90. New York, New York City, 446 E. 72d St., Normal College Alumnae House, Mary A. Hill.
91. New York, New York City, McDougall St., Richmond Hill House, Mrs. E. H. Haight.
92. New York, New York City, 259 W. 69th St., Riverside Association, S. G. Lindholm.
93. New York, New York City, 94 Lawrence St., Speyer School, Howard Woolston.
94. New York, N.Y. City, 239 Spring St., Spring St. Ch. Neighborhood House, H. Roswell Bates.
95. New York, New York City, 257 E. 71st St., St. Rose's Settlement, Dr. Bertha A. Rosenfeld.
96. New York, New York City, 106 Bayard St., Sunshine Settlement, Florence H. Parker.
97. New York, New York City, 184 Eldridge St., University Settlement, Jas. A. Hamilton.
98. New York, New York City, 501 W. 50th St., West Side Neighborhood House, W. S. Richardson.
99. New York, New York City, 460 W. 44th St., West Side Settlement, Alida A. Bliss.
100. N. Carolina, Asheville, R. F. D. No. 1, Log Cabin Settlement, Mrs. S. C. Lyman.
101. Ohio, Cincinnati, 224 W. Liberty, University Settlement, James G. Stuart.
102. Ohio, Cincinnati, 308 E. Front St., Union Bethel Settlement, J. O. White.
103. Ohio, Cleveland, Mayfield Road, Alta Social Settlement, John H. Lotz.
104. Ohio, Cleveland, 368 St. Clair St., Goodrich Social Settlement, Rufus E. Miles.
105. Ohio, Cleveland, 345 Orange St., Hiram House, Geo. A. Bellamy.
106. Ohio, Columbus, 468-474 W. Goodale St., 1st Neighborhood Guild, Wallace E. Miller.
107. Pennsylvania, Allegheny, Petril St., Wood's Run Indust. Home, Miss E. O. Wickersham.
108. Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, 429-435 Christian St. and 502 S. Front St., College Set'm't, Miss A. F. Davies.
109. Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, 922 Locust St., Eighth Ward Set'm't, Frances R. Bartholomew.
110. Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, 618 Addison St., Neighborhood House, Chas. S. Daniel.
111. Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, 725 Lombard St., Starr Center Neighborhood, Chas. T. Walker.
112. Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, 8th St. and Snyder Ave., St. Martha's House, Jean W. Colesbury.
113. Pennsylvania, Pittsburg, 1835 Center Ave., Columbus Council School Settlement, Yetta R. Baumgarten.
114. Pennsylvania, Pittsburg, 3 Fulton St., Kingsly House, Wm. H. Matthews.
115. Wisconsin, Milwaukee, 499 Fifth Ave., "The Settlement," Simon Kandor.

NOTES TO FOLLOWING TABLES.

- ¹ Auspices of Presbyterian Church. ² Kitchen garden, district nurses, sale of clothing.
³ Twenty-five non-resident helpers. ⁴ Summer Camp. ⁵ Fifty non-resident helpers. ⁶ Methodist Board of City Missions. ⁷ Extension work. ⁸ Attendant Value of Plant. ⁹ Methodist Episcopal. ¹⁰ Summer Camp. ¹¹ Christian Endeavor. ¹² Society for Ethical Culture, 40 non-resident helpers. ¹³ Coffee House. ¹⁴ Methodist Episcopal. ¹⁵ Associated Jewish Charities. ¹⁶ Kansas Home Missionary. ¹⁷ M. E. Church, South. ¹⁸ Begun as night school. ¹⁹ Trade unions and Civic meetings. ²⁰ City Mission and Church Extension Soc. ²¹ Y. W. C. T. U. ²² As Kindergarten. ²³ Methodist Episcopal, South. ²⁴ Protestant Episcopal. ²⁵ German Presbyterian. ²⁶ Music and Art classes. ²⁷ Presbyterian Church. ²⁸ Amity Baptist Church. ²⁹ Protestant Episcopal Mission. ³⁰ King's Daughters. ³¹ Restaurant. ³² Grace Church, Protestant Episcopal. ³³ Four Branches. ³⁴ Roman Catholic. ³⁵ Council of Jewish Women.

SOCIAL PROGRESS

Number.	Date of Foundation.	Residents.	Men who give all their time.	Women who give all time.	Number of Clubs.	Men.	Women.	Boys.	Girls.	Classes.	Men or Boys.	Women or Girls.	Bowling Alley.	Gymnasium.	Billiards.	Baths.	Amusement Societies.	Dramatic Club.	Sewing Class or School.	Cooking Class or School.	Night Class or School.	Manual Training.	Kindergarten.	Reading Room.
1	1892	21	5	16	7	2	1	2	2										1	1	1	1	1	1
2 (1)	1904	5	1	4	2	1	1			8	3	5							1	1	1	1	1	1
3 (2)	1894	5	5																1	1	1	1	1	1
4 (3)	1895	4	2	2	16	1	1	10	6	4									1	1	1	1	1	1
5 (4)	1894	4	1	2	14	4	4	4	4										1	1	1	1	1	1
6	1895	3	1		10	2	2	15	17	20	5	15							1	1	1	1	1	1
7	1900	2	2		43	13	2	5	4	27	2	2							1	1	1	1	1	1
8	1902	1	1	1	21	2	2	5	5	6	2	2							1	1	1	1	1	1
9	1901	2	2	4	10	2	2	10	3	30	1	1							1	1	1	1	1	1
10	1904	2	2	1	5	2	1	2	2	4	1	3							1	1	1	1	1	1
11 (5)	1903	4	4		29	2	7	12	8	33	3	30							1	1	1	1	1	1
12 (7)	1899	10	2	4	35	10	16	10	9	36	18	22							1	1	1	1	1	1
13	1894	16	2	6	10	1	2	2	2	20	12	8							1	1	1	1	1	1
14 (8)		8	2	6	1	1	1	2	2	3	3	3							1	1	1	1	1	1
15	1895	4	2	2	19	1	1	3	6	3	3	3							1	1	1	1	1	1
16 (10)	1894	5	1	2	6	1	1	6	8	3									1	1	1	1	1	1
17 (11)	1904	7	2	2	3	1	1	1	1	6	6	6							1	1	1	1	1	1
18	1898	5	1	4	8	3	3	3	2	18	5	13							1	1	1	1	1	1
19 (12)	1898				30	1	2	9	8	10									1	1	1	1	1	1
20	1889	30	14	16	10	2	6	1	1	10	2	6							1	1	1	1	1	1
21 (14)	1900	5	2	3	16	1	2	3	6	23	2	2							1	1	1	1	1	1
22 (15)	1893	2	1	1	14	1	2	3	6	8	3	7							1	1	1	1	1	1
23	1896	4	1	3	13	2	3	4	4	8	4	4							1	1	1	1	1	1
24	1891	9	2	2	2	2	3	4	4	8	4	4							1	1	1	1	1	1
25	1903	7	2	5	10	3	3	2	2	16	9	7							1	1	1	1	1	1
26	1894	7	2	2	4	1	1	1	2	4	1	3							1	1	1	1	1	1
27	1899	3	3		7	2	1	2	3	4	1	3							1	1	1	1	1	1
28	1896	5	2	2	8	2	1	2	3	4	1	3							1	1	1	1	1	1
29	1896	3	1	1	7	1	1	2	3	4	1	3							1	1	1	1	1	1
30 (16)	1902	1	1	2	3	1	3	3	3	9	4	5							1	1	1	1	1	1
31 (17)	1903	11	2		4	1	1	1	2	9	4	5							1	1	1	1	1	1
32	1896	13			18	1	1	8	7	9	3	4							1	1	1	1	1	1
33	1899	5			10	1	1	3	5	13	5	8							1	1	1	1	1	1
34	1899	1		1	3	2	2	2	1	10	4	6							1	1	1	1	1	1
35 (18)	1880				18	1	1	9	9	10	4	6							1	1	1	1	1	1
36	1893	8		7	5	2	1	1	1	34	19	15							1	1	1	1	1	1
37		3	3	3	7	1	1	1	5	5	5								1	1	1	1	1	1
38 (19)	1901	5	3	2	15	2	4	16	11	12	12	20							1	1	1	1	1	1
39	1892	12		6	33	2	4	16	11	10	10	5							1	1	1	1	1	1
40	1896	9		4	23	1	1	4	3	60	28	27							1	1	1	1	1	1
41	1885				8		1	3	8	22	18	22							1	1	1	1	1	1
42 (20)	1891	3		3	12		1	4	3	10	3	7							1	1	1	1	1	1
43 (21)	1897	5		4	25		11	14	10	10	3	7							1	1	1	1	1	1
44	1899	5		4	23	9	1	2	4	18	9	9							1	1	1	1	1	1
45	1902		1	1	10	2	2	4	4	24	11	13							1	1	1	1	1	1
46	1887	3	3		13	1	3	8	1	46	16	20							1	1	1	1	1	1
47	1900	6			12	3	2	4	3	24	8	16							1	1	1	1	1	1
48	1902	3	2		14	3	6	8	8	8	8								1	1	1	1	1	1
49	1892	12	3	3	21	1	3	5	12	20	3	12							1	1	1	1	1	1
50	1897	12	4	7						11	5	6							1	1	1	1	1	1
51	1903	8																	1	1	1	1	1	1
52	1904	2	1	1						8	7	7							1	1	1	1	1	1
53	1897	7	5		9	1	2	3	3	19	5	14							1	1	1	1	1	1
54 (32)	1888	5			9		1	4	3	8	1	7							1	1	1	1	1	1
55	1897	1		1	2		1	1	1	6	1	6							1	1	1	1	1	1
56	1895		1	1	4	3	3	1		3	1	3							1	1	1	1	1	1
57	1901	6	2	2	7			3	4										1	1	1	1	1	1
58	1902	1	2	2	5		2	1	2	8	3	5							1	1	1	1	1	1
59 (23)	1902	4	1	3	2		2	1	1	4	1	3							1	1	1	1	1	1
60 (24)	1887	5	1		13	2	2	3	6	14	4	10							1	1	1	1	1	1
61 (25)	1901	5	1							2	4	2							1	1	1	1	1	1

Loan Library.	Day Nursery.	Fresh Air Work.	Medical Aid.	Dispensary.	Sick and Death Benefit.	Penny Provident.	Coal Club.	Wood Yard.	Lodging House.	Soup or Coffee Booth.	Flower or Fruit Mission.	Attendants.	Men.	Boys.	Women.	Girls.	Approximate Value of Plant.	Approximate Annual Expenditure.	Number.
1				1	1							670	125	125	75	125	\$34,000	\$24,000	1
				1								500					2,000		2
	1			1		1						350	15		19		5,000	1,500	3
												800	65	60	150	140	7,000	1,396	4
												286	26	95	15	161	35,000	3,000	5
												1,000	12	350	125	500		2,000	6
							1					288	13	99		135	200	2,000	7
										1		1,000	150	350	200	300	8,000	1,000	8
										1		200	25	40	100	30		4,000	9
												500						200	10
												1,600	70	450	675	425	18,000	3,100	11
												4,000					72,000	13,000	12
												600						4,500	13
												1,000					5,000	4,500	14
																	20,000	1,000	15
												1,000					20,000	10,000	16
												125	30	30		40		650	17
												750						7,500	18
												500	14	250	60	175	15,000	1,900	19
										(18)		6,000					200,000	20,000	20
												440					40,000	6,000	21
												500						3,700	22
												500					6,000	1,800	23
																	50,000	4,500	24
												700	40	250	70		6,000	4,000	25
												1,300	100	570	200	450	38,000	4,000	26
												100		70	15	15	3,000	1,000	27
												300		30	30	200		1,200	28
												200	20	50	40	75		2,500	29
												250	20	105	25	90	3,000	1,600	30
												500	100	100	200	200	6,000	1,500	31
												1,000					7,000	3,900	32
												1,000	40	162	73	178		5,000	33
												200		100		200	9,000	600	34
												500		100	40	200	5,000	1,500	35
												200						3,000	36
												125		15	50	60		2,000	37
												600	300		100				38
												800	75	200	200	200	17,000	7,000	39
												1,000	20	360	250	360	3,000	6,000	40
												350		150	30	150	20,700	3,900	41
												300	30	40	60	115	26,000	3,000	42
												600		200	200	323		7,300	43
												500		125		125	8,000	4,500	44
												246		110	40	75		2,000	45
												1,000	20	500	125	350	100,000	20,000	46
												600	50	75	150	225		2,400	47
												245	115	50	15	65			48
												1,000	150	200	350	400	70,000	13,000	49
												200							50
												260	34	30	35	40	1,200	1,500	51
												500	50	150	150	150	10,000	500	52
												450	20	140	15	275	15,000	2,300	53
												320		70	110	140		1,500	54
																		2,500	55
																			56
												200					1,500	2,000	57
												200	10	50	50	90		1,350	58
												600	45	75	75	100		3,750	59
												470	40	70	80	280	20,000	2,800	60
												500		75	25	150	5,000	1,000	61

SOCIAL PROGRESS

Number.	Date of Foundation.	Residents who give all their time.	Men who give all their time.	Women who give all their time.	Number of Clubs.	Men.	Women.	Boys.	Girls.	Classes.	Men or Boys.	Women or Girls.	Bowling Alley.	Gymnasium.	Billiards.	Baths.	Amusement Societies.	Dramatic Club.	Sewing Class or School.	Cooking Class or School.	Night Class or School.	Manual Training.	Kindergarten.	Reading Room.
62	1896	5	6	1	...	2	2	3	1	2	...	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
63	1898	3	2	10	7	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
64	1896	3	7	7	7	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
65	1904	3	7	1	1	3	2	5	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
66	1902	3	7	1	1	3	2	5	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
67 (26)	1895	6	10	1	4	5	5	31	15	28	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
68	1901	1	1	10	6	6	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
69	1890	2	1	1	11	3	4	2	4	4	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
70	1901	2	2	2	1	4	4	17	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
71	1900	2	2	2	1	1	1	2	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
72	1898	5	6	1	1	9	9	23	11	12	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
73 (27)	1894	6	6	18	2	2	8	7	5	10	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
74 (27)	1894	7	7	11	1	4	5	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
75	1899	9	9	67	15	12	25	15	36	10	26	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
76 (28)	1896	16	1	13	4	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
77	1897	10	10	20	8	12	...	15	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
78	1891	9	2	30	2	3	10	15	2	4	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
79 (29)	1829	5	2	4	6	1	2	4	60	23	37	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
80 (30)	1900	1	2	8	1	1	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
81	1901	6	1	5	10	8	2	12	12	7	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
82	1897	8	5	5	14	1	2	5	2	7	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
83 (31)	1895	3	5	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
84	1902	15	8	1	1	2	3	28	12	16	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
85	1897	10	7	25	5	12	8	60	26	34	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
86 (32)	1893	24	24	48	8	5	16	19	37	11	16	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
87	1890	7	23	10	2	4	7	6	15	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
88	1886	9	2	31	2	6	10	9	35	16	19	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
89	1889	12	12	27	2	6	10	9	11	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
90	1894	8	10	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
91	1903	7	9	1	2	4	2	4	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
92	1892	1	5	2	2	2	1	8	2	6	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
93	...	8	2	3	18	2	4	7	5	11	5	7	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
94	1900	4	2	2	20	2	4	6	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
95 (34)	...	9	9	9	2	3	3	2	31	11	20	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
96	1900	1	3	5	1	1	3	10	1	9	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
97	1886	12	6	50	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
98	1898	14	3	7	15	2	1	6	6	25	11	14	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
99	...	4	6	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
100	1895	4	1	3	5	1	2	1	1	4	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
101	1899	7	2	24	2	3	16	3	14	11	3	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
102	1901	14	1	7	20	2	3	7	18	7	2	6	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
103	1895	12	1	7	24	3	4	7	10	26	16	10	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
104	1897	15	1	3	31	2	3	3	3	3	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
105	1896	17	2	5	74	24	10	25	15	50	10	40	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
106	1897	6	3	3	18	1	3	7	5	22	12	10	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
107	1904	6	2	10	5	5	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
108	1892	18	7	20	20	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
109	1894	3	3	8	1	2	2	3	7	3	4	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
110	1893	4	1	2	6	3	3	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
111	1884	3	3	14	11	3	2	1	...	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
112	1901	6	4	5	...	1	3	1	13	2	11	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
113 (35)	1900	6	3	15	3	1	6	5	25	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
114	1893	9	1	4	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
115	1900	1	1	15	...	1	8	6	48	22	26	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Total...	...	748	128	370	1,558	185	220	496	466	1,573	569	912	8	70	28	54	73	49	108	80	45	65	26	83

Loan Library.	Day Nursery.	Fresh Air Work.	Medical Aid.	Dispensary.	Sick and Death Benefit.	Penny Provident.	Coal Club.	Wood Yard.	Lodging House.	Soup or Coffee Booth.	Flower or Fruit Mission.	Attendants.	Men.	Boys.	Women.	Girls.	Approximate Value of Plant.	Approximate Annual Expenditure.	Number.
1												150	25	50	25	100	3,000	300	62
1												1,500						6,000	63
1												300							64
												75		30	15	25	8,000	2,400	65
1												522		145	47	308		3,500	66
1												120	40	40		40		2,500	67
1												370	100	75	74	90		3,500	68
1												300						3,000	69
1												600		125	28	325		1,000	70
1	1											1,500	40	500	150	500	7,500	3,000	71
1												600	65	200	100	250	30,000	7,500	72
1												1,200					10,000	3,500	73
1												1,000							74
1												200					110,000		75
1												1,000					30,000	5,000	76
1	1											600					120,000	10,000	77
1												1,600	200	500	400	500		15,000	78
1												1,260		240	275	250		3,000	79
1												1,000		50			140,000	9,000	80
1												1,000					30,000		81
1	1											1,100							82
1												400	25	65	60	220		5,500	83
1												2,000					60,000	15,000	84
1												1,677					100,000	40,000	85
1												1,200					53,000	11,000	86
1												400					175,000	20,000	87
1												800	75	355	130	525		20,000	88
1												125							89
1												300	30	90	70	100	18,000	5,000	90
1	1											220						10,000	91
1												500	50	100	90	100	200,000	15,000	92
1												800	100	225	175	300			93
1												700	50	200	50	400		8,000	94
1												200			50	125		3,000	95
1												10,000					200,000	70,000	96
1	1											2,500					25,000	24,000	97
1												1,200					60,000		98
1												80	10	15	20	30			99
1												600	150	300	100	60		3,000	100
1	1											650	50	200	125	300	60,000	8,000	101
1												2,000	350	900	150	200	40,000	12,000	102
1												1,000	200	400	200	500	125,000	12,000	103
1												1,800	300	675	175	650	65,000	12,000	104
1												900	150	300	750	300	15,000	3,900	105
1												250		50		50	25,000		106
1												1,500							107
1												260							108
1												500					3,000	2,000	109
1												175					10,000	8,000	110
1												800	120	105	225	347	12,000	4,600	111
1												825					25,000	6,000	112
1												6,000						20,000	113
1												650	95	80	13	242		25,000	114
1																			115
94	22	74	27	24	7	84	10	4	7	2	37	95,744					2,652,900	677,146	

Of those Settlements reporting this item, the average yearly expenditure is \$7,053; omitting the University Settlement, New York, the average is \$6,258.

FOREIGN SOCIAL SETTLEMENTS.

From the (English) Reformers' Year Book.

GREAT BRITAIN.

London.—Toynbee Hall, 28 Commercial St., E. (Founded 1885.) Warden, Canon S. A. Barnett, M.A. Oxford House, Bethnal Green, E. (1885.) Head, Rev. H. S. Woollcombe. Mansfield House, Canning Town, E. (1890.) Warden, J. Bruce Wallace, M.A. Bermondsey Sett., Farncombe St., S.E. (1891.) Warden, J. Scott Lidgett, M.A. Chalfont House, 20 Queen Sq., W.C. (1893.) Warden, T. E. Harvey, M.A. Browning Hall, York St., Walworth, S.E. (1894.) Warden, F. H. Stead, M.A. Cambridge House, Camberwell Rd., S.E. (1897.) Head, W. J. Conybeare, M.A. Passmore Edwards Sett. Tavistock Pl., N.W. (1897.) Warden, G. Gladstone, M.A. Maurice Hostel, 64-66 Britannia St., City Rd. (men only). Head, Jn., Neal, B.A. St. Pancras Ethical Guild, 7 Prince of Wales Rd., N.W. Sec., F. B. Kirkman, Morley College, 131 Waterloo Road, S.E. Head, E. J. Urwick. Felstead School Mission, Custom House, E. Head, Rev. T. H. Gilbert, M.A. Gonville & Caius College Sett., Harroway Rd. Head, Rev. A. Shillito, B.A. Deptford Fund, 24 Buckingham Palace Rd., S.W. Sec., Mrs. Lambert.

THE PROVINCES (MEN).

Bristol.—Broad Plain House, St. Phillips. (1891.) Warden, F. N. Colborne.

Edinburgh.—Chalmers University Sett., 10 Ponton St. (1887.) University Hall. Founded 1887. Senior resident, Prof. Pat. Geddes. Town and Gown Association, 21 Rutland St.

Glasgow.—Toynbee House, Cathedral Court, Rotten Row. Founded 1886. Hon. Sec., H. D. Jackson, Westdel Dowanhill. University Students' Sett., 10 Possil Rd. (1889.) Warden, W. Boyd, M.A. Broomielaw United Free Church College Mission, 52 Carrick St., Anderston, Glasgow. Warden, Rev. J. Law, M.A.

Ipswich.—Social Sett., 133-35 Fore St. (1896.)

Manchester.—Lancashire College Sett., Embden Street, Hulme. (1895.) Warden: Rev. T. T. James. Manchester Art Museum and University Sett., 200 Every St., Ancoats. Founded 1895. Warden, T. R. Marr. Church House, 291 Gt. Ancoats St., Manchester.

Sheffield.—The Neighbourhood Guilds Association. (1897.) Hon. Sec., Frank Tillyard, M.A., 282 Granville Road. Crofthouse Sett. Warden, Rev. W. Blackshaw, M.A.

FOR WOMEN.

London.—Women's University Sett., 45 Nelson Sq., Blackfriars Road. (1887.) Head, Miss Helen Gladstone. St. Hilda's East, Cheltenham College Settlement, Old Nicholl St., Bethnal Green, E. (1889.) Head, Miss Bruce. St. Margaret's House, 216 Old Ford St., Bethnal Green, E. (1889.) Head, Miss Harington. Canning Town Women's Sett., Barking Rd., E. (1892.) Head, Miss Cheetham. Bermondsey Sett., 149 Lower Rd., Rotherhithe, S.E. (1892.) Head, Miss Simmons. College of Women Workers (Grey Ladies), Dartmouth Row, Blackheath, S.E. (1892.) Head, Miss Wordsworth. North London Ladies' Sett., York House, 37 Hantham St., Halloway, N. (1893.) Head, Miss Shelford. Lady Margaret Hall Sett., 129 Kennington Rd., S.E. (1897.) Org. Sec., Miss Pearson. St. Mildred's House, Millwall, Isle of Dogs, E. (1897.) (In connection with St. Margaret's House, Zethnall Green.) Head, Miss Winstour. Maurice Hostel, 90 Shepherdess Walk, City Road, E.C. (1898.) Head, Miss F. Eves. Presbyterian Sett., 56 East India Dock Rd., E. Head, Mrs. E. Hewitt. Talbot House Sett., 8 Addington Sq., Camberwell. Head, Miss Harmer. Working Women's College, Fitzroy Sq., W. St. Helen's House, The Grove, Stratford, E. Head, Mrs. Crossley.

THE PROVINCES (WOMEN).

- Birmingham*.—Women's Sett., 318 Summer Lane. Head, Miss Staveley.
Cardiff.—Welsh University Association for the Furtherance of Social Work. Grove House, Richmond Crescent. Hon. Sec., Miss L. Howell.
Chesterfield.—The Sett., Church Lane. Head, Miss Markham.
Darlington.—The Ladies' Settlement.
Glasgow.—Queen Margaret Sett. 75 Elliott St., Anderston, Glasgow, Head, Miss Marion Rutherford.
Liverpool.—Victoria Women's Sett., 322 Netherfield Rd. Head, Miss Macadam.
Manchester.—Art Mus., Ancoats Hall. Head, Miss Alice Crompton, B.A. Lancashire College Sett., Embden St., Hulme. Head, Miss B. Pochin. House for Lady Church Workers, 295 Gt. Ancoats St. Head, Miss Annie Wright.
Middlesbrough.—Congregational Women's Sett. Head, Miss Harriss.
Stoke-on-Trent.—Women's Sett., Fenton House. Head, Miss Garnett.

FRANCE.

L'Union Familiale, 1 passage Etienne Delauney, 172 rue de Charonne, Paris.

GERMANY.

Volksheim. Muhlenburg 41. Hamburg.

HOLLAND.

Ous Huis, 12-16 Rozenstraet, Amsterdam. Samenwerking Building, 8 De Eenheid St. Gravenlijkje, Amsterdam. Our House, Prinsepacht 77. The Hague. Rotterdam Buintveronigvig, Gondsestraat 12, Rotterdam. Volkshuis d Scheedam, 131 Lange Haven, Sciedam.

THE HISTORY OF THE STANDARD OIL MONOPOLY IN BRIEF.

George W. Alger thus sums up Ida M. Tarbell's impartial two-volume history of the Standard Oil Company: "We have an oil monopoly because we have failed to regulate the railroads, and have no law to protect small dealers or to protect railroads from each other. The railroads conspired with the Standard in order to save themselves from a ruinous competition. The Interstate Commerce Act has failed. The same problem is with us to-day, building other monopolies. The Standard claims to-day \$45,000,000 of annual profits, with which it is obtaining the ownership or control of railroad systems, mines—iron, steel, and copper—banks and trust companies, telegraph and telephone lines, city franchises of gas and electric lighting. Ninety per cent. of this profit remains among the few men who make up the Standard Oil family."

GENERAL FEDERATION OF WOMEN'S CLUBS.

President, Mrs. Sarah S. Platt Decker, 1550 Sherman Ave., Denver, Colo.; Cor. Sec., Miss Louisa P. Poppenheim, 31 Meeting St., Charleston, S. C.

The Federation has committees on Education, Library, Extension, Household Economics (Chairman, Mrs. A. C. Neville, Greenbay, Wis.), Industrial Questions (Chairman, Mrs. Frederick Nathan, 162 W. 86th St., N. Y. City), Child Labor (Chairman, Jane Addams, Hull House, Chicago, Ill.), Art, Civics (Chairman, Mrs. Ralph Trautman, 40 W. 85th St., N. Y. City), Forestry, Civil Service (Chairman, Georgie A. Bacon, 39 Dean St., Worcester, Mass.), Legislation (Mrs. Frederick Schoff, 3418 Baring St., Philadelphia, Pa).

SOCIAL PROGRESS

STATE FEDERATIONS.

State.	No. of Clubs	Corresponding Secretary.
Arizona	11	Mrs Shirley Christy, 600 N. Second Ave., Phoenix.
Arkansas	84	Mrs. James D. Shaver, Mena.
California	156	Mrs. A. W. Cornwall, Hotel St. Nicholas, San Francisco.
Colorado	127	Mrs. Walter H. Wood, 814 8th St., Greeley.
Connecticut	54	Miss Bertha Weising, Thompsonville.
Delaware	12	Mrs. O. D. Robinson, Georgetown.
District of Columbia	14	Miss Laura V. McCullough, 406 11th St. N. E., Washington.
Florida	19	Mrs. R. F. Adams, Palatka.
Georgia	51	Mrs. Eugene Heard, Middleton.
Illinois	251	Miss B. M. Doolittle, 113 Adams St., Chicago.
Indiana	55	Mrs. M. Hoffman, 130 La Porte Ave., South Bend.
Indian Territory	32	Mrs. Sam. Downing, Atoka.
Iowa	316	Miss Harriet Lake, Independence.
Kansas	300	Mrs. F. B. Hine, Kinsley.
Kentucky	46	Miss Luella Boyd, 1536 Greenup St., Covington.
Louisiana	21	Mrs. Allan D. Spooner, Lake Arthur.
Maine	110	Miss Edith McAlpine, 164 Emery St., Portland.
Maryland	30	Mrs. L. Dill, Clifton Ave., Walbrook, Baltimore.
Massachusetts	213	Mrs. Dora M. Goodwin, 77 Mt. Vernon St., Haverhill.
Michigan	172	Mrs. M. T. Smith, Washington St., W. Bay City.
Minnesota	187	Mrs. C. S. Wallace, 1446 W. Lake St., Minneapolis.
Mississippi	21	Miss Blanche Alexander, Kosciusko.
Missouri	142	Mrs. W. R. Chivvis, 3627 Cook Ave., St. Louis.
Montana	24	Mrs. L. J. Knapp, Missoula.
Nebraska	136	Mrs. Glen T. Babson, Seward.
New Hampshire	72	Mrs. S. B. Hadcock, 282 Prospect St., Manchester.
New Jersey	102	Mrs. M. H. Kinsley, 606 Hudson St., Hoboken.
New York	230	Miss Mary G. Hay, 29 E. 29th St., New York.
North Carolina	23	Miss Claytor Candler, Winston-Salem.
North Dakota	49	Mrs. T. A. Boyden, Lisbon.
Ohio	318	Mrs. J. B. Cartwell, 478 E. High St., Springfield.
Okl. and Indian Ter.	67	Mrs. F. A. Belt, Kingfisher, Oklahoma
Oregon	36	Mrs. Sam. White, Baker City.
Pennsylvania	146	Miss M. K. Garvin, 1930 Wallace St., Philadelphia.
Rhode Island	23	Mrs. C. H. Beach, 23 Chapin Ave., Providence.
South Carolina	66	Mrs. Andrew C. Moore, Columbia.
South Dakota	33	Mrs. Stella Stuttenroth, Watertown.
Tennessee	36	Mrs. S. M. Williamson, 370 Mississippi Ave., Memphis.
Texas	218	Mrs. H. Hinton, Mercroft, Argyle Ave., Dallas.
Utah	27	Mrs. A. J. Gorham, 403 E. 2d South St., Salt Lake City.
Vermont	29	Mrs. Dennison Cowles, Brattleboro.
Washington	79	Mrs. Geo. E. St. John, Everett.
West Virginia	15	Mrs. T. Carroll Burke, Elmgrove.
Wisconsin	154	Miss H. M. Holcomb, 24 6th St., Fond du Lac.
Wyoming	17	Miss W. W. Woods, Cheyenne.

NATIONAL SOCIETIES.

(See also Religious Societies, Denominational and Missionary Societies, Temperance Societies, Young People's Societies.)

American Academy of Political and Social Science (1889). "The promotion of the political and social sciences." Annual meeting, April. *The Annals of the A. A.* An. Sub. \$5. Acting Sec., Walter E. Kruesi, Logan Hall, University of Penn., W. Philadelphia.

American Association for the Advancement of Science (1848). Annual meeting in January. Annual subscription, \$3. Sec., L. O. Howard, Cosmos Club, Washington, D. C.

American Civic Association (June 10, 1904). Object: Civic improvement. It represents coöperation on a national scale for the promotion of a more beautiful America in every city, village and hamlet in the country. It serves as a clearing house for improvement work, bringing the local workers into helpful contact with one another and placing the experience of all at the command of each. Members, 1,200. Annual meeting, Spring. Reports and pamphlets. Annual subscription, \$2. Pres., Horace McFarland, Harrisburg, Pa.; 1st Vice-Pres., Clinton Rogers Woodruff, 703 N. American Bldg., Philadelphia.

American Economic Association (1885). Object: Encouragement of Economic Research. Annual meeting, December. Publications of American Economic Association. \$5 to members. Sec., Frank A. Fetter, Ithaca, N. Y.

American Humane Education Society. "Kindness, Justice and Mercy to Every Living Creature." Sec., Joseph L. Stevens, 19 Milk St., Boston.

American Library Association (1876). "The best reading for the largest number at the least cost." Annual meeting, July. *Handbook*. Sec., J. I. Wyer, Jr., University of Nebraska, Lincoln, Neb.

American National Red Cross. (In Europe, 1864; in the United States, 1881.) Object: the relief of suffering by war, pestilence, famine, flood, fires and other calamities of sufficient magnitude to be deemed national in extent. The organization acts under the Geneva Treaty, the provisions for which were made in International Convention at Geneva, Switzerland, August 22, 1864, and since signed by nearly all civilized nations, including the United States. Chartered by act of Congress July 6, 1900. Sec., John W. Crawford, Lieutenant, U. S. Navy. In process of reorganization pursuant to recent act of Congress, the Secretary of War having issued a call for a meeting of the incorporators on February 8, 1905. Headquarters, Washington, D. C.

American Peace Society (1828). "The establishment of universal and permanent peace among the nations." Annual meeting, May. *Advocate of Peace*. Annual subscription, \$2. Pres., Robert T. Paine; Sec., Dr. Benjamin F. Trueblood, 31 Beacon St., Boston.

American Political Science Association (1903). "Encouragement of the scientific study of politics, public law, administration and diplomacy." Annual meeting, December. *Proceedings*. Annual subscription, \$3. Pres., Frank J. Goodnow, Columbia University; Sec., W. W. Willoughby, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, M. D.

American Public Health Association (1872). "Advancement of sanitary science and the promotion of organizations and the measures for the practical application of public hygiene." Annual meeting, January. *Annual Transactions*. Annual subscription, \$5. Sec., Dr. Chas. O. Probst, Columbus, O.

American Purity Alliance (1875). "To prevent State regulation of vice and to promote social purity." Annual meeting, January. *The Philanthropist*, 50 cents. Sec., Anna Rice Powell, 6300 Green St., Philadelphia.

American Secular Union and Free-thought Federation (1876). "To propagate the nine demands of liberalism as specified in our constitution. To effect a total separation of church and state, not only in name as it now is, but as an actual fact. Taxation of church property, the elimination of all religious teaching in the public schools, and the abolition of all those clearly unconstitutional measures which are wrongly ciled Sunday laws." Annual meeting, October or November. Annual report, \$1. Sec., E. C. Reichwald, 141 S. Water St., Chicago.

Nine Demands of Liberalism.

1. We demand that churches and other ecclesiastical property shall be no longer exempt from taxation.

2. We demand that the employment of chaplains in Congress, in the legislatures, in the navy and militia, and in prisons, asylums, and all other institutions supported by the public money, shall be discontinued.

3. We demand that all public appropriations for educational and charitable institutions of a sectarian character shall cease.

4. We demand that all religious services now sustained by the government shall be abolished; and especially that the use of the Bible in the public schools, whether ostensibly as a textbook or avowedly as a book of religious worship, shall be prohibited.

5. We demand that the appointment, by the President of the United States or by the governors of the various States, of all the religious festivals and feasts shall wholly cease.

6. We demand that the judicial oaths in the courts and in all other departments of the government shall be abolished, and that simple affirmation under the pains and penalties of perjury shall be established in its stead.

7. We demand that all laws directly or indirectly enforcing the observance of Sunday as the Sabbath shall be repealed.

8. We demand that all laws looking to the enforcement of "Christian" morality shall be

abrogated and that all laws shall be conformed to the requirements of natural morality, equal rights and impartial liberty.

9. We demand that not only in the Constitution of the United States, and of the several States, but also in the practical administration of the same no privilege or advantage shall be conceded to Christianity or any other special religion; that our entire political system shall be founded and administered on a purely secular basis; and whatever changes shall prove necessary to this end shall be consistently, unflinchingly, and promptly made.

American Society for the Extension of University Teaching (1890). (1) "To extend higher education to all classes of people; (2) to extend education through the whole of adult life; (3) to extend thorough methods of study to subjects of every day interest." Annual meeting, January. *Syllabi of Lectures*. Annual subscription, \$5 to \$500. Sec., Charles D. Atkins, 111 S. 15th St., Philadelphia.

American Statistical Association (1839). Annual meeting, January. Quarterly publications of American Statistical Association. Annual subscription, \$2. Sec., Davis R. Dewey, 491 Boylston St., Boston.

Anti-Imperialist League. Sec. Irving Winslow, 20 Central St., Boston.

Bureau of Civic Cooperation. The Bureau of Civic Cooperation offers practical aid to individuals, clubs and institutions interested in the betterment of community life. It furnishes expert service in supplying information and in outlining methods applicable to conditions in any community in harmony with policies of the interested organizations and institutions. Sec., E. G. Routzahn, 5711 Kimbark Ave., Chicago.

Bureau of Economic Research. George H. Shibley, Bliss Bldg., Washington, D. C.

Collectivist Society. Organized in New York City, 1902. Principles.

We believe that the true principle of production and distribution is expressed in the dictum: "From each according to his ability; to each according to his needs." This principle requires that all should have the opportunity of useful work, and that all should engage in useful work under the penalty of public disgrace; that all should receive comfortable incomes except those who will not work, and that none should receive excessively high incomes, as the latter are morally injurious both to the recipient and to the community. The ultimate operation of this principle will be toward the ideal of practical equality of incomes.

We believe that this principle can be made effective only by the people acting as a whole through Governments truly democratic.

We believe that this is no far-off ideal, but is in all civilized countries an attainable rule to be embodied, step by step, into law, custom and habit.

We believe that the establishment of this principle will require the transfer of the means of production and distribution into the hands of the community; and that every transfer of this nature should be accompanied by full provision for those expropriated on the basis of their needs.

We believe that our Governments, national, state and local, are worthy of hearty allegiance, as in the main good institutions, far more free and beneficent than Governments in past times. We believe, however, that they can be made vastly more beneficent through changes for which the present time is ripe.

We believe that in those cases where the powers of government are now used for private gain to the detriment of the people at large, it is because the energetic demands of private interests are not met by an enlightened and united opposition.

We believe that this evil—the exploitation of the powers of government for private gain—should be abolished and our Governments made fully responsive to the people's will, through the establishment of direct legislation, proportional representation and the power of recall.

We believe that the measures, other than the last named, which at present promise best results are:

Legislation to secure work to the unemployed; to establish a maximum day and a minimum wage for all workers; and to provide pensions for the aged.

The taxation of franchises at their full value, and the graduated taxation of land values, incomes and inheritances.

The assumption by city and state Governments of enlarged and new activities for the common benefit, including the ownership of public utilities.

The assumption by the national Government of the telegraphs, railroads and mines.

The organization publishes tracts carefully prepared on evolutionary, scientific and Christian Socialism. Pamphlets postpaid, single copies, 10 cents; in lots of five, 8 cents; ten, 7½ cents; twenty-five, 6½ cents; fifty, 6 cents; seventy-five, 5½ cents; one hundred, 5 cents. Sec., Miss M. R. Holbrook, P. O. Box 1663, New York City.

Consumers League, National (1899). Composed of 53 leagues in 18 States. Principles: 1. That the interests of the community demand that all workers shall receive fair living wages, and that goods shall be produced under sanitary conditions. 2. That the responsibility for some of the worst evils from which producers suffer rests with the consumers who seek the cheapest markets regardless how cheapness is brought about. 3. That it is, therefore, the duty of consumers to find out under what conditions the articles they purchase are produced and distributed, and insist that these conditions shall be wholesome and consistent with a respectable existence on the part of the workers. Pres., John Graham Brooks, Cambridge, Mass.; Sec., Mrs. Florence Kelley, 105 East 22d St., New York City.

General Education Board (1902). "The promotion and systematizing of educational beneficiaries." Annual meeting, January. Sec., Wallace Buttrick, 54 William St., New York City.

Immigration Restriction League. Publishes valuable statements and statistics. Sec., Prescott F. Hall, 60 State St., Boston, Mass.

International Sunshine Society (1900). "To incite its members to the performance of kind and helpful deeds, and to thus bring the sunshine of happiness into the greatest possible number of hearts and homes." Annual meeting, May. *International Sunshine Bulletin*, 50 cts. Sec. Treas., Mary D. Beattie, 96 Fifth Ave., N. Y.

League of American Municipalities Sec., John Mac Vicar, Des Moines, Ia.

National American Woman Suffrage Association. Hon. Pres., Susan B. Anthony; Pres., Rev. Anna Howard Shaw; Cor. Sec., Kate M. Gordon, 1800 Prytania St., New Orleans, La.

National Child Labor Committee (1904). "To promote the welfare of society, with respect to the employment of children in gainful occupations; to investigate and report the facts concerning child labor; to co-ordinate, unify and supplement the work of State or local child labor committees, and encourage the formation of such committees where they do not exist." Sec., S. M. Lindsay, 105 E. 22d St., N. Y.

National Children's Home Society (a federation of 26 State societies) (1883). Although several of these organizations are so new that their work is barely begun, 24,000 orphans and neglected children have been thus far cared for, more than half of whom are still under friendly supervision. The number handled last year was 3,720, of whom 2,245 were newly received. Pres., Prof. C. R. Henderson; Sec., Hastings H. Hart, LL.D., 601 Unity Bldg., Chicago, Ill.

National Civil Service Reform League (1881). "To advance the cause of civil service reform in the U. S." Annual meeting, December. *Good Government*. Monthly, \$1. Pres., Dr. D. C. Gilman, Baltimore, Md.; Sec., Elliot H. Goodwin, 79 Wall St., N. Y.

National Congress of Mothers (1897). "To raise the standards of home life; to develop wiser, better-trained parenthood; to use systematic, earnest effort to this end, through the formation of Mothers' Clubs in every public school and elsewhere; the establishment of kindergartens, and laws which will adequately care for neglected and dependent children." Annual meeting, April. Annual subscription, \$2. Sec. Mrs. Edwin C. Grice, 3308 Arch St., Philadelphia.

National Curfew Association (1889). Founded by Alex. Hogeland, agitates for the ringing of the curfew, after which children found unaccompanied on the streets are liable to arrest. It has been adopted in over 4,000 cities and towns of the United States and Canada, and a decrease of crime is claimed in these places from 50 to 80 per cent. Cor. Sec., Rev. J. H. Bradford, 1409 20th St., N. W., Washington, D. C.

The National Direct Legislation League. Pres., Eltweed Pomeroy, East Orange, N. J.; Sec., G. H. Strobell, Newark, N. J.

National Educational Association (1870, Under the name of National Teachers' Association, 1857). The annual meetings previous to 1884 were small in numbers, averaging about two hundred members; since 1884 the annual conventions have averaged more than 6,000 members; since 1895 the average annual membership has been nearly 10,000. These forty-one conventions within forty-five years have been a most important agency in shaping national educational aims and progress. The establishment by Congress of the Bureau of Education of the United States and of the office of United States Commissioner of Education was secured through the early efforts of the association. The recent special committee reports indicate the lines of investigation which, in addition to the work of its annual conventions, have made the association the most important educational organization in the world. The forty-two annual volumes of *Proceedings*, including the *Proceedings* of the International Congresses of Education, constitute the chief publications of the association, and have come to be regarded as the most valuable library of educational literature extant. Annual fees, \$2. Sec., Irwin Shepard, Winona, Minn.

National Irrigation Association. G. H. Maxwell, Executive Chairman; Guy E. Mitchell, Sec., 1419 F St., Washington, D. C.

National League for the Protection of the Family (1881). "Promotion of better public sentiment and legislation regarding the family, especially on marriage and divorce." Annual meeting, January. Annual reports. Annual subscription, \$5. Rev. Sam. W. Dike, LL.D., Auburndale, Mass.

National Municipal League (1894). Through its annual conferences it enables the workers in behalf of municipal betterment to come into personal touch and exchange views. Through its active committees the League has brought together groups of acknowledged experts and public men who have formulated reports of great value to students and administrators. The constant and increasing use of these reports is the surest test of their value. Through its executive officers the League is in constant touch with local and national movements concerned with municipal questions. Annual meeting, Spring. *Proceedings*. Annual subscription, \$5. Sec., Clinton Rogers Woodruff, 703 N. American Bldg., Philadelphia.

National Prison Association (1870). Aims: the reform of criminal law; preventive and reformatory law; improvement of prison discipline; the police force of cities. Sec., J. L. Milligan, LL.D., Allegheny, Pa.

Needle Work Guild of America (1885). "To collect and distribute new, plain, suitable garments to meet the great need of hospitals, homes, and other charities, and to extend its usefulness by the organization of branches." Cor. Sec., Miss Rosamond K. Bender, 110 S. 17th St., Philadelphia, Pa.

Postal Progress League. Pres., Col. Albert A. Pope; Sec., James L. Cowles, 21 Park Row, N. Y.

Propaganda of Free Discussion (1897). "The teaching of advanced radicalism on marriage, society, government and all social relations." Annual meeting, January. Propaganda leaflets, 35 and 60 cts. a hundred. Manager, Edwin C. Walker, 244 W. 143d St., N. Y.

Proportional Representation League. Sec., Robert Tyson, Toronto, Ont.

United States Civil Service Retirement Association (1900). "To obtain information upon the subject of superannuation and to aid in devising measures in the interests of the public service and of the employees in that service, by an equitable provision for their retirement without expense to the Government." Annual meeting, May. Annual subscription, 25 cts. Sec., David P. Caldwell, Department of Justice, P. O. Box 37, Washington, D. C.

Woman's National Trade Union League. Sec., Mary K. O'Sullivan, 5 Dudley St., Roxbury, Mass.

UNDENOMINATIONAL RELIGIOUS SOCIETIES.

Actors' Church Alliance Founded (1899) by Rev. Walter E. Bentley, to establish closer relationship between the theatre and the church. It appoints chaplains of all denominations to minister to the needs of the dramatic profession and agitates against Sunday performances and other evils of the stage. It has some 3,000 members, about half of these members of the dramatic profession. It is established in more than 400 towns of the United States and Canada, with local chapters in the larger cities, and is affiliated with the Actors' Church Union, of England. Pres., Rt. Rev. H. C. Potter, D.D.; 1st Vice-Pres., Joseph Jefferson; Gen. Sec., Rev. Walter E. Bentley, Manhattan Theatre, New York City.

American Bible Society (1816). Annual meeting, May. *The Bible Society Record*. Annual subscription, \$3. Secs. John Fox, D.D., Wm. I. Haven, D.D., E. P. Ingersoll, D.D., Bible House, Astor Place, New York City.

American Sabbath Union (1888). "The preservation of the Christian Sabbath." Annual meeting, December. Publishes 40 different leaflets. Gen. Sec. Frederick J. Stanley, D.D., L.H.D., 203 Broadway, New York City.

American Seamen's Friend Society (1828). "To improve the social and moral condition of seamen." Address 76 Wall St., New York City.

American Society of Religious Education (1889). "To increase the popular interest in the sacred Scriptures and to secure their more general and thorough study; to unite the efforts of scholars in promoting improved methods for the development and cultivation of man's spiritual nature; to introduce such methods into the family, the Sunday-school, the pulpit, and higher institutions of learning; and to collect and preserve for general reference full statistical and documentary information of all systems of religious instruction." Annual meeting, April. Publishes 17 books. Annual subscription, \$5. Pres., John M. Harlan, LL.D., Justice U. S. Supreme Court; Gen. Sec., James E. Gilbert, D.D., LL.D., Washington, D. C.

American Sunday School Union. Founded under present name, 1824, but begun as The First Day Society, in Philadelphia, 1791. It has distributed over \$9,000,000 worth of religious literature; it maintains more than 120 permanent missionaries, and has organized an average of more than 1,300 Sunday schools annually. During the year ending February 29, 1904, 1,841 new schools were organized, 701 old schools revived and reorganized, 97,812 scholars and teachers in above schools, 259 missionaries were employed, 221,568 visits were made, 23,787 sermons and addresses were delivered, 27,161 copies of the Bible were distributed, 139 churches grew out of Sunday schools, \$7,247.29 worth of books and periodicals were given to the needy, \$171,909 were received for the support of missionary work. Gen. Sec., John R. Whitney, 1122 Chestnut St., Philadelphia.

American Tract Society (1825). Publications (in one hundred and sixty languages and dialects), 483,472,445 copies exclusive of periodicals, in forty-six languages issued at the home office alone. Its colporters last year visited 233,651 families and during sixty-three years have visited 15,432,677 families, and circulated 16,497,116 volumes of Christian literature. The grants of literature in all forms last year aggregated an equivalent of over forty million pages, to the value of \$20,000. Its work is missionary in all its departments, and is wholly dependent upon donations and legacies. Sec., G. L. Shearer, D.D., 150 Nassau St., New York City.

Brotherhood of the Kingdom (1893). Annual meeting, August. Reports and leaflets. Annual subscription, \$2. Sec., Rev. Chas. L. Carhart, Dorset Vt.

The Bureau of Missions. In coöperation with the Foreign Missionary Societies of the United States and Canada. The Bureau embraces three departments: The Department of Missionary Information, The Literary Department, and The Museum Department. Sec., Henry O. Dwight, D, Bible House, New York City.

Central American Mission (1888). "To evangelize Central America." Annual meeting, November. *Central America Bulletin*, 25 cts. Sec., C. J. Scofield, D.D., Dallas, Texas.

Chautauqua Institution. Originated (1874) with Lewis Miller and John H. Vincent. Meets every summer at Lake Chautauqua during July and August. One hundred and fifty-six similar assemblies meet in the United States. The Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle was organized 1878. It has a four years' course of home study, each year complete in itself. Individuals can join or circles of three or more. It specifies books for study, allotment of time and publishes a monthly magazine with readings, notes, etc. Time required is about one hour a day for nine months. Certificates given to those who complete the course. It has enrolled 285,000 members in over 11,000 circles within 26 years. Annual fee, 50 cents. Chancellor, Bishop (M. E.) John H. Vincent; Sec., Kate F. Kimball, Chautauqua, N. Y. Organ, *The Chautauquan*.

Christian Social Union (1891, re-organized 1903). "To study and to help to apply the principles of Christianity to the social and economic difficulties of the present time." Annual subscription, \$1. The society has become a section of the Church Association for the Advancement of the Interests of Labor. Sec., Rev. A. J. Arkin, 3046 Richmond St., Philadelphia.

Church Association for the Advancement of the Interests of Labor, known as *C. A. I. L.* (1887). Organized by nine clergymen of the Protestant Episcopal Church. Principles:

The Church Association for the Advancement of the Interests of Labor, believing that the clergy and laity of the Church should become personally interested in the social questions now being agitated, should inform themselves of the nature of the issues presented, and should be prepared to act ■ the necessities of the day may demand, sets forth the following principles and methods of work for its members:

1. It is of the essence of the teachings of Jesus Christ that God is the Father of all men, and that all men are brothers.
2. God is the sole possessor of the Earth and its fulness; Man is but the steward of God's bounties.
3. Labor being the exercise of body, mind, and spirit in the broadening and elevating of human life, it is the duty of every man to labor diligently.
4. Labor, as thus defined, should be the standard of social worth.
5. When the divinely-intended opportunity to labor is given to all men, one great cause of the present widespread suffering and destitution will be removed.

Pres., Rt. Rev. F. D. Huntington, S. T. D., Bishop of Central New York. More than sixty bishops of the P. E. Church are honorary vice-presidents, whose efforts for the betterment of the industrial interests of all sorts and conditions of men in the promotion of conciliation between capital and labor have been of world-wide influence. Communicants of said church are eligible for membership, and others willing to work with the society may become associate members. The society has an official organ, *Hammer and Pen*, the only church labor paper in the United States. The association has standing committees on organized labor, investigation of strikes and promotion of peace, sweat shops, carrying on an aggressive work against sweating, tenement houses, looking to the reform of abuses, and church and stage, in co-operation with the Actors' Church Alliance, *Evangelical Alliance for United States* (1846). "Christian unity, religious liberty and coöperation in Christian work. Sec., L. T. Chamberlain, D.D., 222 W. 23d St., New York City.

The Federation of Churches and Christian Organizations in New York City (1895). Object: to organize and assist the churches and Christian organizations in New York City for coöperative work in behalf of the spiritual, physical, educational, economical and social interests in its family life; and to represent the Christian sentiment of the city in regard to moral issues. Sec., Rev. Walter Laidlaw, Ph.D., 11 Broadway. Organ, *Federation Quarterly*.

The society has taken religious censuses of over one million people. It has lists of all institutions in each of the 77 subdivisions of Greater New York; has in operation a coöperative church parish system covering 450,000 of the population;

and has reduced, by the district plan, the churchless Protestants, in one neighborhood, from 48 to 28 per cent. It has the support of 25 religious communions, and has led to similar work in Providence, Toledo, Syracuse, Utica and some other cities, and stimulated the federation movement throughout the United States.

Girls' Friendly Society in America (1877). "Mutual help (religious and secular), sympathy and prayer; and to encourage purity, dutifulness, faithfulness and thrift." It has 487 branches and 5,384 associates and 21,994 members and probationers in the United States. Pres., Mrs. Thomas Roberts, The Aldine, Philadelphia, Pa.; Gen. Sec., Miss Eve Alexander, 659 West Lexington St., Baltimore, Md. Central office: Church Mission House, New York City.

Gospel Missionary Union (1891). Undenominational. Foreign missions. Sec., Geo. S. Fischer, 415 Oak St., Kansas City, Mo.

Hepzibah Faith Missionary Association (1892). *Sent of God*. Tabor, Ia.

Industrial Missions Association (1903). "To inaugurate and develop self-supporting industrial missionary operations all over the world, in order to find, as far as may be possible, a means of livelihood for mission adherents, thus helping them to become a vigorous, self-supporting Christian community, instead of burdens to missions." Organ, *The Industrial Missions Magazine*. Gen. Sec., F. M. Gilbert, 105 E. 22d St., New York City.

Interdenominational Council of Women for Christian and Patriotic Service (1900). "Works to secure an amendment to our National Constitution which would make polygamy and polygamous cohabitation a crime in every State and Territory of the United States, and to be tried in Federal courts, because of the Mormon control of the courts of Utah and Idaho to-day and increasing power of the Mormon Church in surrounding States and Territories." Cor. Sec., Mrs. F. S. Bennett, Room 720, 156 Fifth Ave., New York City.

International Board of Women's and Young Women's Christian Associations (1858). "Mental, physical and spiritual advancement of young women." *Bulletin, Journal*, and leaflets. Dr. Anna L. Brown, 96 Fifth Ave., New York.

International Christian Police Association, N.Y. Branch. (1892.) "To promote the spiritual and moral welfare of police officers." Annual meeting, December. Sec., Rev. Wm. T. Blackeby, 235 W. 30th St., New York City.

International Medical Missionary Society (1881). "To aid and train men and women to become medical missionaries to serve under the various evangelical missionary societies." Annual meeting, January. Reports. Sec., George D. Doknott, M.D., 288 Lexington Ave., New York City.

International Order of the King's Daughters and Sons (January 13, 1886). "To develop spiritual life and to stimulate activities." Annual meeting, May. *The Silver Cross*, \$1. Sec., Mrs. Mary Lowe Dickinson, 156 Fifth Ave., New York City.

International Reform Bureau (1895). "To promote moral reforms and especially the repression of intemperance, impurity, gambling, and Sabbath breaking in all lands." Annual meeting, April. *Twentieth Century Quarterly*. Annual subscription, \$3. Superintendent, Wilbur F. Crafts, D.D., 206 Pennsylvania Ave., S. E., Washington, D. C.

International Sunday School Association. Gen. Sec., Marion Laurence, Toledo, O.

Nat. Federation of Churches and Christian Workers. Object: "The promotion, acquaintance, fellowship and effective coöperation among the several churches of all denominations." Gen. Sec., E. B. Sanford, D.D., 90 Bible House, New York City.

National Florence Crittenton Mission (April 19, 1882). "To help friendless women and teach them ways of earning an honest livelihood." Annual meeting, April. *Florence Crittenton Magazine*, \$1. Sec., Mrs. E. L. Robertson, 142 U St. N. W., Washington, D. C.

Salvation Army (1865). Organized at Mile End, England, by Rev. William Booth, of the "new Methodist connection." It took its present name in 1878, after its military features had become typical. The army numbers, according to the last reports, 1,338 corps and 4,306 officers in Great Britain; 831 corps and 1,527 officers in Australia, and 735 corps and 2,709 officers in the United States, with 18,923 Volunteer workers. The Army is also represented in Canada, France, Switzerland, Germany, Holland, Belgium, Sweden, Norway, Denmark, Finland, Iceland, Italy, India, Ceylon, Japan, Java, South Africa, South America, and the West Indies. The number of periodicals printed or published is 56, with a combined weekly circulation of over a million. The annual rental roll is over \$1,000,000. The amount of property owned by this organization now exceeds \$4,000,000, and the annual income is more than \$5,000,000. The American Salvation Army relief institutions include 81 workingmen's hotels, 6 hotels for women, 15 food depots, 32 industrial homes for the unemployed, 22 second-hand stores, 5 labor bureaus, 3 farm colonies with nearly 3,000 acres and about 400 men, women and children, 21 rescue homes caring for 2,000 women annually. The army cares for 650 children daily and finds work for some 50,000 unemployed. Commander-in-Chief Wm. Booth. International Headquarters, 101 Queen Victoria St., London, England. Commander for United States, Miss Evangeline Booth, 120-130 W. 14th St., New York City.

Society of the Friendless. Object: "The prevention of crime, reform in prison law and management, finding employment and care for discharged prisoners. General superintendent, Rev. Edw. A. Fredenhagen, 306 Woodlawn Ave., Topeka, Kansas.

Student Volunteer Movement for Foreign Missions (1886). "To awaken and maintain among all Christian students of the United States and Canada intelligent and active interests in foreign missions; to enroll a sufficient number of properly qualified student volunteers to meet the successive demands of the various missionary boards of North America; to help all such intending missionaries to prepare for their life-work and to enlist their coöperation in developing the missionary life of the home churches; to lay an equal burden of responsibility on all students who are to remain as ministers and lay workers at home, that they may actively promote the missionary enterprise by their intelligent advocacy, by their gifts and by their prayers." Annual meeting, September. *The Intercollegian*, 50 cts. Gen. Sec., Fennell P. Turner, 3 W. 29th St., New York City.

Volunteers of America (1896). Organized by Mr. and Mrs. Ballington Booth in military style like the Salvation Army, but with a more American and democratic constitution. It has nearly 100 self-supporting posts, not including outposts. They raised the last year \$110,000 in the outposts alone among the poor and working men, besides the amounts raised by the national and State centres.

During the past year about 1,100 women have been cared for in their Homes of Mercy, and some 30,260 beds in all have been provided in these institutions.

The volunteer officers and workers visited and aided no less than 30,173 families during the year in and around the poorest sections of the large cities where they labor.

No less than 234,504 persons were lodged in the homes and institutions for working and destitute men and women, not including the many thousands who were given temporary relief during the strikes in several sections of our country.

There were 366,037 persons fed with substantial meals in the above institutions, apart from those assisted temporarily during holiday and festival occasions, which reached about 100,000.

Tens of thousands of poor people and little children were given an outing into the fresh air during the year through the instrumentality of the organization.

Through the regimental reports from their officers, it was learned that 1,060,955 persons attended the Sunday and week-night services, while, despite the unusually cold spring, there gathered at our 13,164 open-air services, 2,639,633 individuals.

The Volunteer Prison League organized by Mrs. Ballington Booth (1895), has branches in seventeen State prisons and embraces 19,260 prisoners. It corresponds with and for 30,000 men. It has established three Hope Halls (homes for released convicts till they can get work) at Flushing, L. I., Fort Dodge, Iowa, Chicago, Ill. Seventy-six per cent. of the 2,220 who have passed through these halls have done well. Address, Mrs. Ballington Booth, 38 Cooper Sq., New York.

In addition to the above, The Volunteers have purchased homes for children in Malden, Mass., Darien, Conn., and a home for young women in Minneapolis, Minn., besides leasing a number of institutions for working girls and young men. The Volunteers have also reading rooms, Fresh Air Camps, hospital nurses, and free dispensaries. President, Ballington Booth, 38 Cooper Square, New York City.

Young Men's Christian Association (London, 1844). Under the leadership in England of Mr., now Sir, George Williams, and in North America of the North American International Committee, on a specific Christian basis, its object is the physical, mental, social and spiritual benefit (a) of its members (b) of young men in general, (c) of boys, the young men of to-morrow. Seven thousand three hundred and seventy-six associations in the world, of which 1,815 are in North America. The total membership of these American associations is 373,502; they occupy 475 buildings of their own, valued at \$26,260,870. They have 32,820 young men as students in evening educational classes, 126,966, in their physical departments and nearly 60,000 in Bible classes. They employ 2,080 general secretaries and other paid officials, and expended last year for current expenses—local, State and international—\$4,283,347. North America contains approximately one quarter of the total number of associations in the world, one-half of the total membership, three-quarters of the total number of employed officers, and three-quarters of the total value of buildings and equipment. This statement of the relative standing of the American movement is essential to the recognition of its real position of leadership, a leadership also signally manifested in the extension of its work to non-Christian lands in other continents. International Committee, office, No. 3 West 29th St., New York. General Secretary, Richard C. Morse. This committee is the general executive of the associations of North America. It consists of fifty-four representative Christian laymen and employs a force of fifty secretaries in the home and forty-five in the foreign field. In conjunction with thirty-five State and Provincial Committees it has promoted every phase of work just described, and has been a leading factor in extending the movement among railroad and other industrial men, students, soldiers, sailors and negroes. World's Committee, office, No. 3 General Dufour, Geneva, Switzerland. General Secretaries, C. Fermaud and C. Philidius.

Young People's Missionary Movement (1901). Its executive committee, composed of workers in all church bodies, works to promote prayer for missions, knowledge of them, and interest in the work, among young people's societies and Sunday-schools. Gen. Sec., S. Earl Taylor, 150 Fifth Ave., New York City.

Young Women's Christian Association. Formed 1858 as the "Ladies' Christian Union." In the United States, by 1871, there were thirty Y. W. C. A.'s and an International Board was developed. In 1886 another national organization was started under the same name with the special object of establishing Y. W. C. A.'s in schools and colleges. It is now doing city work as well, and has taken the name "The American Committee Affiliated with the World's Y. W. C. A." (See below.) The World's Y. W. C. A. was formed in 1894. The headquarters are in London, 26 George St., Hanover Square, W. Gen. Sec., Miss Annie Reynolds.

In the International Board there are 60 associations, membership of over 1,000,000; value of property, about \$5,000,000. There are 15 general branches of work, subdivided into 30 departments. Travelers' Aid and in the South, Industrial Work, are the definite lines of work of the International Board.

Pres. International Board of W. and Y. W. C. A., Mrs. Warren S. Buxton, Springfield, Mass. Sec., Miss Emily B. Steuart, Baltimore, Md.

Y. M. C. A. American Committee (See above). Formed 1884. Offices, 914 Hartford Bldg., 140 Dearborn St., Chicago, Ill.; Eastern office, 289 Fourth Ave., New York City. There are now associations affiliated with the American committee in 510 colleges and 100 cities, with 23 State organizations. A secretarial training institute was organized in 1903 to prepare young women for positions as secretaries. *The Evangel*, the official organ of the association, is published monthly at Chicago. Miss Harriet Taylor is general secretary of the American committee. Membership of local associations connected with the American committee, 80,000. The American committee is affiliated with the World Y. M. C. A.

TEMPERANCE SOCIETIES.

American Anti-Saloon League. Ohio State Branch formed 1893; national organization, 1895. There are now forty State Leagues. Object: restriction and suppression of the saloon. Methods: agitation for the development of public sentiment and effort for the enactment of legislation to carry it into effect. General National Superintendent, Rev. P. A. Baker, Columbus, Ohio; Superintendent of Legislative Department, Rev. E. C. Dinwiddie, Washington, D. C. A Lincoln Legion has been established for the development of Gospel Suasion and Abstinence, Superintendent, Rev. Howard H. Russell, D.D., 110 E. 125th St., New York City.

Catholic Total Abstinence Union of America (1872). A confederation of all the Catholic temperance societies in the country that are approved by the pastors of their respective churches. It embraces 89,400 members, enrolled in 1,042 societies. Its objects are to secure to its members the privilege of being received into societies connected with the union in any part of America; to encourage and aid communities and pastors in establishing new societies, and to spread, by means of Catholic total abstinence publications, correct views regarding total abstinence principles. Pres., Rt. Rev. J. F. R. Canevin, Bishop of Pittsburgh, and Gen. Sec., J. W. Logue, 1313 Stephen Girard Building, Pa.

Church Temperance Society (1881). An organization in the Protestant Episcopal Church. Object: the training of the young in habits of temperance, the rescue of the drunkard, the restriction of the saloon by means of high license and the establishment of coffee houses, workingmen's clubs, reading rooms and other attractive resorts. Its membership combines those who temperately use and those who totally abstain from intoxicating liquors as beverages. Organ, *Temperance (Quarterly)*. Sec., Robert Graham, Church Mission House, New York.

The Church Temperance Legion is for boys composed of members of the Knights of Temperance and the Young Crusaders, and is auxiliary to the Church Temperance Society.

Guild of the Iron Cross (1888). (Protestant Episcopal.) Its members are pledged to temperance, reverence and chastity, by use of prayer, sacramental grace and the exercise of works of mercy. Chaplain General, Rev. C. N. Field, S.S.J.E., 33 Bowdoin St., Boston, Mass.

Independent Order of Good Templars. Organized in central New York, 1851. Both sexes are admitted to membership on an equal footing. Members are obliged to take a pledge that they will never make, buy, sell, use, furnish nor cause to be furnished to others, as a beverage, any spirituous or malt liquors, wine or cider, and will discontinue the manufacture and sale thereof in all proper

ways. The order has established itself in every part of the world, and its ritual exists in fifteen different languages. There are more than 100 grand lodges and upward of 10,000 subordinate lodges, with a total membership of 560,000. There is a juvenile branch with a total membership of about 200,000. International Templar, Councillor Joseph Malins, Birmingham, Eng.; Sec., Col. B. F. Parker, Milwaukee, Wis.; International Superintendent of Juvenile Work, Miss Jessie Forsyth, 27 Doan St., Boston, Mass.

Moderation Society (1879). Object: to provide free ice water fountains for the laborers and poor and little children. It provides also travelling perambulators for the slums. \$10,000 erects 50 free ice water fountains, a great preventative of intemperance and resultant vice and crime. Sec., Howard K. Lyon, 23 Park Row, New York.

National Temperance Society and Publication House. Pres., D. S. Dodge, D.D.; Gen. Sec., James B. Dunn, D.D., 3 E. 14th St., New York City. Publishes *The National Advocate* for adults; *Youth's Temperance Banner* and *Water-lily* for children.

Non-Partisan National Women's Christian Temperance Union. An offshoot from the Woman's Christian Temperance Union, instituted in Cleveland, Ohio, 1890, by women who objected to political action taken by the W. C. T. U. The work of this organization is largely educational, its efforts being to reach every class of the population, child, youth and adult, with proven facts regarding the drink habit and traffic. The work is also substitutional, the aim being always to put something of unquestioned value in place of the evil prohibited or abandoned. Training for honest self-support is a cardinal principle because it minimizes temptation and stimulates the sterling qualities that make good for good citizenship. Its departments are: Army, Navy, and Marine Corps Work; Educational; Evangelistic; Industrial Training; Legislative; Press Work; Rescue Work; Sunday School Work. Its organ is *Temperance Tribune*. Gen. Sec., Mrs. Ellen G. Phinney, 513 Arcade, Cleveland, O.

National Woman's Christian Temperance Union (1874). A result of the great woman's crusade. The largest society ever composed exclusively of women and conducted entirely by them. The World's W. C. T. U., formed in 1883, through the efforts of Frances E. Willard, has 49 National Unions, with about half a million members. The W. C. T. U. originated the idea of scientific temperance instruction, and has secured mandatory laws for it in every State in the Union. It has largely influenced the change in public sentiment in regard to social drinking, equal suffrage, equal purity for both sexes, equal remuneration for work equally well done, equal educational, professional and industrial opportunities for men and women. Through its efforts thousands of girls have been rescued from lives of shame and tens of thousands of men have signed the total abstinence pledge and been redeemed from inebriety. The W. C. T. U. has been the chief factor in State campaigns for statutory prohibition South as well as North, constitutional amendments, reform laws in general and those for the protection of women and children in particular, and in securing anti-gambling and anti-cigarette laws. It has been instrumental in raising the age of protection for girls in every State but two. It secured the appointment of police matrons, now required in nearly all the large cities of the United States. It keeps a superintendent of legislation in Washington during the entire session of Congress to look after reform bills. It aided very materially in securing the anti-canteen amendment to the army bill, which prohibits the sale of intoxicating liquors in all army posts. Congressman-elect Roberts, the polygamist, was prevented from taking his seat in the United States Congress by petitions and protests largely gathered by the W. C. T. U., and it is an important factor in the Smoot investigation. It distributes millions of papers of literature every year and fills thousands of columns in the daily and weekly newspapers. Thirty-two States publish State papers devoted entirely to W. C. T. U. interests. The nationa

official organ is *The Union Signal*, a sixteen page paper published weekly. The official organ of the Loyal Temperance Legion, the children's organization, is *The Crusader Monthly*. Pres., Mrs. Lillian M. N. Stevens; Sec., Mrs. Susanna M. D. Fry. Headquarters, Evanston, Ill.

YOUNG PEOPLE'S RELIGIOUS SOCIETIES.

Baptist Young People's Union of America (1891). Local societies in every State and Territory. President, John H. Chapman; Secretary, Rev. H. W. Reed, office, 324 Dearborn St., Chicago, Ill.

Brotherhood of St. Andrew. An organization of young men of the Protestant Episcopal Church, founded in 1883 by James L. Houghtelling. It works under two rules, known as (1) The Rule of Prayer: To pray daily for the spread of Christ's kingdom among men, and for God's blessing upon the labors of the brotherhood, and (2) The Rule of Service: To make at least one effort each week to bring some man nearer to Christ through His church. It has 1,825 Senior chapters, with 645 Junior chapters of older boys—altogether 25,000 men and boys. There are National organizations also in Canada, England, Japan and Africa and most English colonies. Pres., Robert H. Gardiner, Boston, Mass.; Gen. Sec., Hubert Carlton, Broad Exchange Building, Boston, Mass.

Brotherhood of Andrew and Philip. An organization of men in all denominations, founded 1888. The rules of the brotherhood are the rule of daily prayer and the rule of service. Each denomination has its own council and officers and legislates for itself. Three members are chosen by each denomination to the Federal Council, which plans the work of the church as a unit and issues the federal organ and literature. 875 chapters and about 25,000 men are now enrolled. Pres., Rev. Rufus W. Miller, Reading, Pa., the founder of the order; Gen. Sec., Rev. J. Garland Hamner, Jr., 189 Garside St., Newark, N. J. The brotherhood reaches twenty-three denominations and has chapters in Canada, Japan and Australia. Its official organ, *The Brotherhood Star*, is published monthly at Lebanon, Pa., and New York City.

Brotherhood of St. Paul, (Methodist Episcopal (1896). Sec., Rev. A. W. Hayes, D.D., Binghamton, N. Y.

Daughters of the King (1885). It is desired that a careful distinction be made between the Daughters of the King and The King's Daughters. This is the older society, and differs from The King's Daughters in important particulars. It is more of an order than a society and is distinctly Episcopal. Its work is "for the spread of Christ's kingdom among young women." Its colors are white and blue—white, the old royal color of Israel, and blue, the color of the Virgin Mary, the "blessed daughter of Israel's King, the Mother of the King of Kings." Its constitution is framed, as far as is possible, in the terms of that of the Brotherhood of St. Andrew, the work of the two organizations being similar. Pres., Mrs. E. A. Bradley; Sec., Miss Elizabeth L. Ryerson. Office of the council, Church Missions House, 281 Fourth Ave., New York.

Epworth League. Formed in May, 1889, by the union of five societies in the Methodist Episcopal Church, which had under their jurisdiction about 1,500 local societies, or "chapters," and about 6,000 members. October 1, 1903, the Epworth League in the Methodist Episcopal Church numbered 29,600 chapters, with a membership of 2,000,000. Gen. Sec., Rev. Joseph F. Berry, D.D., 57 Washington St., Chicago, Ill. The Epworth League of the Methodist Episcopal Church, South, was organized at Memphis, Tenn., January, 1891. There are 3,973 chapters, with a membership of 132,530. The headquarters are at Nashville, Tenn. Pres., Bishop A. W. Candler, Atlanta, Ga.; Gen. Sec., Rev. H. M. Du Bose, D.D., Nashville, Tenn.

Luther League of America. An association of Young People's Societies in the Lutheran Church. It publishes the *Luther League Review*, P. O. box 876, New York City. Pres., Wm. C. Stoever, 727 Walnut St., Philadelphia; Gen. Sec., Rev. Luther M. Kuhns, 2569 Pierce St., Omaha, Neb.

New-Church Young People's Societies, American League of (1887). Sec., Miss Frances Twitchell, 1416 F St., N. W., Washington, D. C.

United Society of Free Baptist Young People. (590 societies in 13 States unions with 23,000 members. Organized for missionary endeavor.) Pres., E. P. Metcalf, Providence, R. I.; Sec., Harry S. Myers, Hillsdale, Mich.

Westminster League (the Young People's Society of the Presbyterian Church). Chairman, James M. Barkley, D.D.; Sec., Richard Owen, Hudson Building, Detroit, Mich.

Young People's Alliance of the Evangelical Association (1895). Pres., Rev. S. P. Spring; Cor. Sec., Rev. C. Staebler, Cleveland, O.

Young People's Christian Union. Organization of 1,560 young people's societies of the United Brethren in Christ, with 63,132 members. Pres., Rev. J. G. Huber; Sec., Rev. C. W. Brewbaker, Chambersburg, Pa.

Young People's Christian Union of the Associate Reformed Presbyterian Church. Gen. Sec., Lillian Morrison, Statesville, N. C.

Young People's Christian Union of the United Presbyterian Church (1889) Gen. Sec., Rev. G. E. Hawes, Braddock, Pa.

Young People's Missionary League of the Reformed Church in America. Cor. Sec., Rev. A. De W. Mason, 25 E. 22d St., N. Y.

Young People's Society of Christian Endeavor. Originated Portland, Me., Feb. 2, 1881, with Rev. Francis E. Clark. Object: to make the young people loyal and efficient members of the church of Christ. It is the church training the young. Its motto is: "For Christ and the Church." In January, 1905, there were 65,196 societies, with a membership of 3,911,700, chiefly in the United States, Great Britain and in all missionary lands. It is found in about the same proportions in all the great evangelical denominations. The United Society is simply the bureau of information for all the societies. It prints the literature, supports one general secretary. It levies no taxes, however, and assumes no authority, but every society manages its own affairs in its own way. It is supported by the sales of its literatures, badges, etc. It is managed by a board of trustees, representing the great evangelical denominations, the president being Francis E. Clark, D.D., the general secretary, Von Ogden Vogt, Tremont Temple, Boston, Mass.

Young People's Christian Union of the Universalist Church. 10,000 members in 225 local unions. Pres., Louis A. Ames; Sec., H. A. Hersey, 30 West St., Boston, Mass.

Young People's Religious Union (Unitarian) (1896). 140 local unions. Pres., Mr. Carleton A. Wheeler; Sec., Miss Emily B. Osborn, 25 Beacon St., Boston, Mass.

Young People's Societies of the Presbyterian Church (South). Gen. Supt., Rev. A. I. Phillips, Richmond, Va.

DENOMINATIONAL AND MISSIONARY SOCIETIES.

(See also Religious Statistics.)

ADVENTIST.

American Advent Mission Society (1865). Works among the Freedmen of the South. Foreign Department (1882). An. meeting, October. Sec., Rev. A. C. Johnson, 160 Warren St., Boston, Mass. *Prophetic and Mission Record*. 25c.

Advent Christian Woman's Home and Foreign Missionary Society. Sec., Miss Lena N. Bradford, Rockland, Me. *All Nations Monthly*.

American Advent Christian Helpers Union. Organ, *Our Hope*. Sec., Eva Stevens, Geneva, Ill.

American Advent Western Home Mission Board. Sec., J. A. Smith, 1121 No. Church St., Rockford, Ill.

American Advent, Southern Home Mission Board. Sec., George H. James, Wilmington, N. C.

SEVENTH DAY ADVENTIST.

General Conference of Seventh Day Adventists. (1863) Biennial meeting, 1905. Sec., W. A. Spicer, 222 N. Capitol St., Washington, D. C. *Advent Review*.

International Medical Missionary and Benevolent Society. Sec., John M. Morse, M.D., Sanitarium, Battle Creek, Mich.

BAPTIST.

American Baptist Education Society (1888). An. meeting, May. Sec., W. C. Bitting, D.D., 54 William St., New York.

American Baptist Home Mission Society (1832). An. meeting, May. *Baptist Home Mission Monthly*. Sec., Henry L. Morehouse, D.D., 312 Fourth Ave., New York.

American Baptist Missionary Union (1814). An. meeting, May. *Baptist Missionary Magazine*. \$1. Sec., H. C. Mabie, D. D., Tremont Temple, Boston, Mass.

American Baptist Publication Society (1814). An. meeting, May. Sec., A. J. Rowland, D.D., 1420 Chestnut St., Philadelphia.

Women's American Baptist Home Mission Society (1877). An. meeting, May. *Home Mission Echoes*. Sec., Mrs. M. C. Reynolds, 510 Tremont Temple, Boston, Mass.

Women's Baptist Foreign Missionary Society. Sec. (Foreign Dept.), Mrs. H. G. Safford, Tremont Temple, Boston, Mass.; Sec. (Home Dept.), Mrs. N. M. Waterbury, Tremont Temple, Boston, Mass. *The Helping Hand*.

Woman's Baptist Home Mission Society. Sec., Miss Mary G. Burdette, 2411 Indiana Ave., Chicago. *Tidings*.

Southern Baptist Convention (1845). An. meeting, May. Sec., Lansing Burrows, D.D., Nashville, Tenn.

Foreign Mission Board. Sec., Rev. R. J. Wellingham, 1103 Main St., Richmond, Va. *Foreign Mission Journal*, 50c.

Home Mission Board. Sec., B. D. Gray, D.D., Atlanta, Ga. *Our Home Field*.

Sunday School Board. Sec., J. M. Frost, D.D., Nashville, Tenn. *Kind Words*.

Woman's Missionary Union (auxiliary to the Southern Baptist convention). Sec., Miss Annie W. Armstrong, 233 N. Howard St., Baltimore, Md.

Lott-Carey Baptist Home and Foreign Mission Convention. Object: the evangelization of the colored people in the United States and in church fellowship and mission work in Africa. Cor. Sec., W. M. Alexander, D.D., Baltimore, Md. *Lott-Carey Herald*.

National Baptist Convention (1880). (Colored). An. meeting, Sept. Sec., W. L. Cansler, 1219 Tilden St., Nashville, Tenn.

Foreign Mission Board of the National Baptist Convention (1880). An. meeting, Sept. *The Mission Herald*. 35c. Sec., Rev. L. G. Jordan, 726 W. Walnut St., Louisville, Ky.

Home Mission Board Sec., R. H. Boyd, D.D., Nashville, Tenn.

Educational Board. Sec., John R. Wilson, Columbia, S. C.

FREE BAPTISTS.

General Conference of (1833). Sec., Rev. Arthur Given. Providence, R. I.

Free Baptist Women's Missionary Society. Sec., Mrs. S. C. G. Avery, Wells, Me. *The Morning Star*, \$1.50, 457 Shawmut Ave., Boston, Mass.

GERMAN BAPTIST BRETHREN CHURCH.

General Missionary and Tract Committee (1884). An. meeting, May or June. *Missionary Visitor*, 50c. Sec., Galen B. Royer, Elgin, Ill.

SEVENTH DAY BAPTISTS.

Seventh Day Baptist Missionary Society (1842). Sec., Rev. O. U. Whitford, 14 Park Ave., Westerly, R. I. *Sabbath Recorder*.

CHRISTIAN CHURCH.

American Christian Convention. Quadrennial meeting, October. Sec., J. F. Burnett, D.D., Muncie, Ind.

Education Board. Sec., Rev. M. W. Baker, Ph.D., Springfield, O.

Mission Board (1886). Sec., J. G. Bishop, D.D., 1251 W. Fifth St., Dayton, Ohio. *Christian Missionary*.

Sunday School Board. Sec., Rev. T. S. Weeks, Fall River, Mass.

Christian Publishing Association (1864.) *Herald of Gospel Liberty*. \$1.50. Sec., Hon. O. W. Whitelock, Dayton, Ohio.

CHRISTIAN AND MISSIONARY ALLIANCE.

Christian and Missionary Alliance (1887). Sec., Rev. A. E. Funk, 692 Eighth Ave., New York City. *Christian and Missionary Alliance*.

CHRISTIAN SCIENCE.

Christian Science Publishing Society. 95 Falmouth St., Boston, Mass.

CONGREGATIONAL.

National Council of Congregational Churches (1871). An. meeting, October. Sec., Asher Anderson, D.D., 410 Congregational House, Beacon St. Boston, Mass.

American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions (1810). Secs., James L. Barton, D.D.; Cornelius H. Patton, D.D., E. E. Strong, D.D., Judson Smith, D.D., Congregational House, Beacon St., Boston, Mass. *Missionary Herald*.

American Missionary Association (1846). Secs., J. W. Cooper, D.D.; C. J. Ryder, D.D.; F. P. Woodbury, D.D., 22d St. and Fourth Ave., New York. *American Missionary*.

Congregational Church Building Society (1853). An. meeting, January. Sec., Chas. H. Richards, D.D., 22d St. and Fourth Ave., New York. *Church Building Quarterly*, 30c.

Congregational Education Society (1816). An. meeting, June, Sec., Rev. Edward S. Tead, 612 Congregational House, Boston, Mass.

Congregational Home Missionary Society (1826). Secs., Joseph B. Clark, D.D.; Washington Choate, D.D.; 22d St. and Fourth Ave., New York City. *Home Missionary*, 50c.

Congregational Sunday School and Publishing Society (1832). An. meeting, April. Sec., George M. Boynton, D.D., Congregational House, Boston, Mass. *The Pilgrim S. S. Missionary*, 20c.

Woman's Board of Missions. Secs., Miss E. H. Stanwood, Miss Kate G. Lamson, Miss A. M. Kyle, 14 Beacon St., Boston, Mass. *Life and Light for Women*.

DISCIPLES OF CHRIST.

American Christian Missionary Society (1849). An. meeting, October. *American Home Missionary*, 25c. Sec., Benjamin Lyon Smith, Y. M. C. A. Building, Cincinnati, Ohio.

Christian Woman's Board of Missions (1874). Sec., Mrs. Helen E. Moses, 152 E. Market St., Indianapolis, Ind. *Missionary Tidings*.

Foreign Christian Missionary Society (1875). F. M. Rains, 15 E. 7th St., Cincinnati, Ohio. *Missionary Intelligencer*.

National Benevolent Association of the Christian Church (1886). An. meeting, October. *The Christian Philanthropist*. Sec., Geo. L. Snively, 903 Aubert Ave., St. Louis, Mo.

National Board of Church Extension. Sec., Geo. W. Muchly, Waterworks Bldg., Kansas City, Mo.

DUNKARDS.

See *German Baptist Brethren Church* (p. 317).

EVANGELICAL.

Evangelical Association Missionary Society (1876). Cor. Sec., Rev. T. C. Meckel, 237 W. 11th St., Erie, Pa. *Evangelische Missionsbote and Missionary Messenger*.

Church Extension Board (1899). Cor. Sec., Bishop S. C., Breyfogel, Reading, Pa.

Woman's Missionary Society of the E. A. Sec., Mrs. A. E. Richard, Cleveland, O.

German Evangelical Synod of North America (1840). Quadrennial Meeting, 1905. *Friedensbote*. Sec., Rev. Edward Fuhrmann, 404 Lafayette St., Newark, N. J.

Foreign Missions Board of German Evangelical Synod (1867). *Deutscher Missions Freund*. Sec., Rev. P. A. Menzel, 1920 G St., N. W., Washington, D. C.

UNITED EVANGELICAL CHURCH.

General Conference. Sec., Rev. U. F. Swengel, Lewisburg, Pa.

Board of Church Extension. Cor. Sec., Rev. B. H. Niebel, Le Mars, Iowa.

Board of Publication. Sec., Rev. B. H. Niebel, Le Mars, Iowa.

Home and Foreign Missionary Society. Cor. Sec., Rev. A. M. Sampsel, Reading, Pa.

Woman's Missionary Society. Sec., Mrs. Ida M. Haeefe, Maltbie, Ill. *The Missionary Tidings*.

Charitable Society of the U. E. Church. Sec., John R. Miller, Reading, Pa.

FRIENDS (QUAKERS).

American Friends. Board of Foreign Mission Society (1894). Sec., Mrs. Mahalah Jay, Richmond, Ind. *The American Friend*.

Associated Executive Committee of Friends on Indian Affairs (1869). An. meeting, May. Sec., Miss Hetty B. Garrett, Germantown, Pa.

Board of Education (1902). Sec., Chas. E. Tebbets, Whittier, Cal.

Board on the Condition and Welfare of the Negroes (1902). Pres., Allen Jay, Richmond, Ind.

- Board of Legislation* (1902). Sec., Amos K. Hallowel, Indianapolis, Ind.
Evangelistic and Church Extension Board (1902). Sec., Mrs. Emma Hedges, New Castle, Ind.
Five Years' Meeting of the Friends in America (1902). Clerk, Edmund Stanley, Wichita, Kansas.
Peace Association of Friends (1867). Sec., Miss Lavinia Bailey, Richmond, Ind. *The Messenger of Peace*.
Woman's Foreign Missionary Union (1890). Sec., Mrs. Sarah J. King, Carmel, Ind.

HEBREW

- Israelite Alliance of America*. Object: to find a solution of the Jewish question in order to abolish the religious persecution and civil and political disabilities of the Jews and to create a public demand for universal civil and political emancipation and religious freedom and equality. Sec., Miss Rebecca Morgenthau, 73 Lawrence St., Brooklyn, N. Y.
National Conference of Jewish Charities (1899). Biennial meetings, May or June, 1906. Reports. Sec., Solomon Lowenstein, 356 Second Ave., New York.
Baron de Hirsch Fund of America. 45 Broadway, New York.
Central Conference of American Rabbis. Pres., Dr. Joseph Krauskopf, Manheim St., Germantown, Pa.
Council of Jewish Women. Pres., Mrs. Hannah G. Solomon, Chicago, Ill.
Federation of American Zionists. Sec., J. De Haas, 320 Broadway, New York City.
Independent Order Free Sons of Israel. 791 Lexington Ave., New York City.
Independent Order Sons of Benjamin. 212 E. 58th St., New York City.
Jewish Chautauqua Society. Chancellor, Dr. Henry Berkowitz, 1539 N. 33d St., Philadelphia.
Jewish Publication Society. Sec., Chas. S. Bernheimer, 608 Chestnut St., Philadelphia.
Order B'rith Abraham. Grand Sec., Jacob Schoen, 37 7th St., New York City.
Union of American Hebrew Congregations. Sec., Lippman Levi, Commercial Tribune Bldg., Cincinnati, Ohio.

LUTHERAN.

(GENERAL SYNOD.)

- General Synod* (1820). Sec., Rev. H. K. Fenner, D.D., 2401 W. Jefferson St., Louisville, Ky.
Board of Education. *General Synod* (1885). An. meeting, July. F. G. Gotwald, York, Pa.
Board of Publication. Sec., S. A. Holman, D.D., 4536 Uber St., Philadelphia, Pa.
Church Extension Board. Sec., H. H. Weber, D.D., York, Pa.
Foreign Missionary Board (1841). Sec., M. J. Kline, D.D., 19 W. Saratoga St., Baltimore, Md. *Lutheran Mission Journal*.
Home Missionary Board. Sec., A. S. Hartman, D.D., 914 N. Carrollton Ave., Baltimore, Md.
Woman's Missionary Society (1879). Biennial meeting, May, 1905. Sec., Mary H. Morris, Lutherville, Md.
Parent Education Society. Sec., Prof. P. M. Bikle, Gettysburg, Pa.
Lutheran Historical Society. Sec., J. W. Richard, D.D., Gettysburg, Pa.
Deaconess Board. Sec., Chas. E. Hay, D.D., Baltimore, Md.

SOCIAL PROGRESS

LUTHERAN FREE CHURCH.

Board of Foreign Missions (1895). Sec., Prof. Geo. Sverdrup, Augsburg Seminary, Minneapolis, Minn. *Gassaren*.

NORWEGIAN EVANGELICAL LUTHERAN CHURCH.

Board of Foreign Missions (1858). Sec., Rev. Peter Dreyer, Harmony, Filmore Co., Mo.

LUTHERANS (GENERAL COUNCIL.)

General Council (1867). Sec., S. E. Ochsenford, D.D., Allentown, Pa.

Board of Publication. Sec., Rev. J. Sheatsley, Delaware, Ohio.

Foreign Missionary Committee. W. A. Schaeffer, D.D., 137 W. School Lane, Germantown, Phila., Pa.

Home Missionary Committee. Sec., Geo. W. Sandt, D.D., 1904 Tioga St., Philadelphia, Pa.

LUTHERANS UNITED SYNOD (SOUTH.)

United Synod, South (1886). Sec., S. T. Hallman, D.D., Newberry, S. C.

Board of Missions. Sec., Rev. L. L. Smith, D.D., Strasburg, Va.

LUTHERANS (SYNODICAL CONFERENCE.)

Synodical Conference (1872). Sec., Prof. J. Schaller, New Ulm, Minn.

Foreign Missionary Committee. Sec., Prof. A. L. Graebner, St. Louis, Mo.

Inner Mission Committee. Sec., Rev. L. Hoelter, 527 Ashland Boulevard, Chicago, Ill.

LUTHERANS (UNITED GERMAN SYNODS, 1892).

Wisconsin (1850). Sec., Rev. H. Gieschen, Wonewoc, Wis.

Minnesota (1860). Sec., Rev. F. Koehler, Nicoleit, Minn.

Michigan (1893). Sec., Rev. C. Bast, Kawhawlein, Mich.

Nebraska (1904). Sec., Rev. C. W. Siegler, Staton, Neb.

English Synod of Mo., (1888). Sec. J. F. Wenchel, Roslindale, Boston, Mass.

LUTHERANS (INDEPEDNENT SYNODS).

Ohio Joint Synod, 10 Dis. (1818). Sec., Rev. W. H. Price, 875 Mt. Eliot Ave., Detroit, Mich.

Buffalo (N. Y.) (1845). Sec., Fr. Plenz, Town Line, N. Y.

Hauges-Nor. (1846). Sec., N. J. Loehre, Jewel, Iowa.

Eilsen's-Nor. (1846). Sec., E. O. Moerstad, Carter, Wis.

Norweg. Luth. Church (1853). Sec., Rev. J. Nordby, Lee, Ill.

Iowa-Ger., 7 Dist. (1855). Sec., Rev. E. H. Caselmann, Charles City, Iowa.

Dan. Ev. Lu. Ch. in Am. (1872). Sec., Rev. J. N. Gregersen, Kimbalton, Iowa.

Icelandic (N. W.) (1885). Sec., Rev. B. B. Jonson, Mineola, Minn.

Immanuel Syn.-Ger. (1886). Sec., Rev. R. Schwitzer, Harrison, N. J.

Finnish Suomi Syn. (1889). Sec., Rev. J. Baeck, Hancock, Mich.

Norwegian United Lu. Ch. (1890). Sec., Rev. Jens C. Roseland, Austin, Minn.

Norwegian Free Church (1893). Sec., Rev. H. C. Caspersen, Modelia, Minn.

Danish United Luth. Ch. (1896). Sec., Rev. L. Johnson, Fergus Falls, Minn.

Texas-Ger. (1896). Sec., Rev. R. Heise, Ellenger, Texas.

Michigan (1897). Sec., Rev. C. Binhamer, Sibewaing, Mich.

Slovak (1902). Sec., Rev. K. Hauser, Freeland, Pa.

Home Mission Board O. Jt. Synod. Sec., Rev. J. H. Schneider, Columbus, Ohio.

Board of German Missions. Sec., Rev. F. Hollis, Jersey City, N. J.

Board of Swedish Home Missions. Sec., L. G. Arbahamson, 2823 Princeton Ave., Chicago, Ill.

MENNONITE.

Mennonite Mission Board (1882). Sec., Rev. A. B. Shelly, Quakertown, Pa.
Board of Home Missions. Sec., Rev. J. J. Balzer, Mountain Lake, Minn.
Emergency Relief Board. Sec., Rev. D. Goerz, Newton, Kansas.
Publication Board. Sec., Rev. W. G. Ewert, Hillsboro, Kansas.

METHODIST.

FREE METHODIST CHURCH.

General Missionary Board (1882). Sec., Rev. B. Winget, 14 N. May St., Chicago, Ill. *Free Methodist*.
Board of Education. Sec., Rev. M. B. Miller, 1229 Chestnut St., Franklin, Pa.
Church Extension Board. Sec., Rev. B. Winget, 14 North May St. Chicago, Ill.
Free Methodist Publishing House, 14 N. May St., Chicago, Ill.
Woman's Foreign Missionary Society. Sec., Mrs. E. L. McGeary, Greenville, Ill. *Missionary Tidings*.

METHODIST EPISCOPAL.

General Conference of the Methodist Episcopal Church. Sec., Joseph B. Hingeley, D.D., Minneapolis, Minn.
Board of Church Extension (1865). *Christianity in Earnest*, 50c. Cor. Sec James M. King, D.D., 1026 Arch St., Philadelphia, Pa.
Board of Education (1866). An. Meeting, December. *The Christian Student*, 25c. Cor. Sec., Wm. F. Anderson, D.D., 150 Fifth Ave., New York City.
Freedmen's Aid and Southern Education Society (1866). An. Meeting, July. *The Christian Educator*, 50c. Cor. Secs., M. C. B. Mason, D.D., and W. P. Thirkield, D.D., 220 W. Fourth St., Cincinnati, Ohio.
Missionary Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church (1819). Sec., A. B. Leonard, D.D.; 1st Asst. Cor. Sec., H. K. Carroll, LL.D., 150 Fifth Ave., New York City. *World-Wide Missions*.
National City Evangelization Union (1892). Cor. Sec., F. M. North, D.D., 150 Fifth Ave., New York City. *The Christian City*.
Sunday School Union (1840). Cor. Sec., J. P. McFallard, D.D., 150 Fifth Ave., New York City.
Tract Society (of the M. E. Church) (1852). Cor. Sec., J. T. McFarand, D.D., 150 Fifth Ave., New York City.
Woman's Foreign Missionary Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church. Sec., Mrs. J. T. Gracey, 177 Pearl St., Rochester, N. Y. *Woman's Missionary Friend*.
Woman's Home Missionary Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church. Cor. Sec., Mrs. D. L. Williams, Delaware, Ohio. *Woman's Home Missions*.
Methodist Book Concern. Publishing agents, Eaton & Mains, 150 Fifth Ave., New York City; Jennings & Graham, 220 W. Fourth St., Cincinnati, Ohio.

AFRICAN METHODIST EPISCOPAL CHURCH.

Parent Home and Foreign Missionary Society (1847). Sec., Rev. H. B. Parks, 61 Bible House, New York City. *Voice of Missions*.

METHODIST EPISCOPAL CHURCH (SOUTH).

Board of Missions (1846). Secs., Rev. W. R. Lambuth, Rev. Seth Ward, Nashville, Tenn. *Go Forward*.
Church Extension Board (1882). Sec., Rev. P. H. Whisner, Louisville, Ky.
Educational Board (1894). Sec., Rev. J. D. Hammond, Nashville, Tenn.

Publishing House (1855). Book agents, Smith & Lamar. *Methodist Quarterly Review*, editor, J. J. Tegert, D.D. *Christian Advocate* (general organ), editor, George B. Winton, D.D., Nashville, Tenn.

Sunday School Board. Sec., Rev. James Atkins, Nashville, Tenn.

Woman's Board of Missions (1878). Sec., Mrs. S. C. Trueheart, Nashville, Tenn. *Woman's Missionary Advocate*.

Woman's Board of Home Missions (1885). Sec., Mrs. R. W. McDonell, Nashville, Tenn.

METHODIST PROTESTANT CHURCH.

General Conference meets quadrennially—1908, etc.

Board of Foreign Missions (1888). Sec., Rev. T. J. Ogburn, West Lafayette, Ohio. *Methodist Recorder*.

Board of Home Missions. Cor. Sec., G. E. McManiman, D.D., West Lafayette, Ohio.

Board of Ministerial Education. Cor. Sec., J. C. Berrien, D.D., Tompkins Cove, N. Y.

Board of Publication. Pres., J. H. Lucas, D.D., Fairmont, W. Va.

Woman's Foreign Missionary Society. Sec., Mrs. D. S. Stephens, Kansas City, Kans. *Woman's Missionary Record*.

PRIMITIVE METHODIST CHURCH.

Primitive Methodist Church in the United States (1896). General Conference. Sec., J. Mason, D.D., Brooklyn, N. Y.

General Publishing House, Fall River, Mass.

WELSH CALVANISTIC METHODISTS.

National Synod (1869). Meets triennially. Sec. of General Conference, Rev. John R. Johns, Randolph, Wis.

Home and Foreign Mission Society (1869). Cor. Sec., Rev. Joshua T. Evans, 2000 Elliot Ave., Minneapolis, Minn.

National Periodical. *Cyfaill*, Utica, N. Y.

WESLEYAN METHODIST CONNECTION.

Wesleyan Methodist Connection (or church) *of America* (1893). Sec., Rev. A. W. Hall.

Missionary Society (1890). Rev. E. Peter, 316 E. Onondaga St., Syracuse, N. Y.

Wesleyan Educational Society.

Wesleyan Methodist Publishing Association.

THE MORAVIAN CHURCH.

(*Unitus Fratrum*, the Unity of the Brethren.)

Board of Elders of the Northern Diocese of the Church of the United Brethren in the United States of America (1742).

Board of Church Extension of the American Moravian Church (1876).

Society of the United Brethren for Propagating the Gospel among the Heathen (1745). Periodicals, *The Moravian*, Bethlehem, Pa.; *Der Brueder-Botschafter*, Watertown, Wis. Executive office of all the boards, Bethlehem, Pa., Sec., Rev. Paul de Schweinitz.

CHURCH OF THE NEW JERUSALEM (SWEDENBORGIAN).

General Convention of the New Jerusalem in the United States of America (1817). Sec., C. A. E. Spamer, 215 N. Charles St., Baltimore, Md., publishes *New-Church Messenger*, Rev. S. C. Eby, editor, Delmar and Spring Aves., St. Louis, Mo.

American New-Church Evidence Society (1894). Sec., Rev. L. F. Hite, 22 Mt. Pleasant St., Cambridge, Mass.

American New-Church Sunday-School Association (1867). Sec., Ezra Hyde, Alden, Arcade Bldg., Philadelphia, Pa.

American Swedenborg Printing and Publishing Society (1850). Sec., L. S. Smyth, 3 W. 29th St.

Board of Home and Foreign Missions. Sec., Rev. Willard H. Hinkley, 16 Arlington St., Boston, Mass.

New-Church Board of Publication (1883). Sec., Rev. A. Roeder, 80 Cleveland St., Orange, N. J.

PRESBYTERIAN.

General Assembly. Stated Clerk, W. H. Roberts, D.D., 1319 Walnut St., Philadelphia, Pa.

Board of Church Erection Fund. Cor. Sec., Erksine N. White, D.D., 156 Fifth Ave., New York City.

Board of Education. Cor. Sec., Rev. Edward B. Hodge, 1319 Walnut St., Philadelphia, Pa.

Board of Foreign Missions (1838). Sec., Frank F. Ellenwood, D.D., LL.D.; Robert E. Speer, Rev. Arthur J. Brown, D.D.; Rev. A. Woodruff Halsey, D.D., 156 Fifth Ave., New York. *Assembly Herald*.

Board of Missions for Freedman (1868). An. meeting, June. Sec., Rev. E. P. Cowan, D.D., 104 Fifth St., Pittsburg, Pa.

Board of Home Missions (1815). An. meeting, April. Sec., Charles L. Thompson, D.D., Presbyterian Building, 156 Fifth Ave., New York. *The Assembly Herald*, 50c.

Board of Publication and Sabbath School Work. Pres., Hon. Robert N. Willson; Sec., Rev. Elijah R. Craven, D.D., LL.D.

College Board (1883). Sec., J. Stuart Dickson, D.D., 156 Fifth Ave., New York City.

Presbyterian Woman's Board of Home Missions (1878). Sec., Mrs. E. A. Boole, 156 Fifth Ave., New York.

Woman's Board of Foreign Missions of the Presbyterian Church (1870). Pres., Mrs. Henry N. Beers, 156 Fifth Ave., New York. *Woman's Work for Women*.

Woman's Foreign Missionary Society of the Presbyterian Church. Pres., Mrs. Chas. N. Thorpe, 1319 Walnut St., Philadelphia, Pa.

CUMBERLAND PRESBYTERIAN CHURCH.

General Assembly. Meeting in May. Stated Clerk, Rev. J. M. Hubbert, Marshall, Mo.

Board of Missions and Church Erection. Sec., J. M. Patterson, Holland Annex, St. Louis, Mo.

Board of Publication. Geeral manager, J. W. Axtell, Nashville, Ten.

Educational Society. Sec., W. J. Darby, D.D., Evansville, Ind.

Organ of the Church. *The Cumberland Presbyterian*. Editor, Rev. Jas. E. Clarke, Nashville, Tenn.

Woman's Board of Missions. Sec., Mrs. D. F. Clarke, Y. M. C. A. Bldg., Evansville, Ind.

PRESBYTERIAN CHURCH IN THE UNITED STATES (SOUTH).

General Assembly. Stated Clerk, W. A. Alexander, D.D., 501 College St., Clarksville, Tenn.

Executive Committee of Colored Evangelization. Sec., Rev. J. G. Snedecor, Tuscaloosa, Ala.

Ex. Com. of Foreign Missions (1861). Secs., Rev. S. H. Chester and J. O. Reaves, Chamber of Commerce Bldg., Nashville, Tenn. *The Missionary.*

Ex. Com. of Home Missions. Sec., S. L. Morris, D.D., Atlanta, Ga.

Ex. Com. of Publication. Sec., Rev. E. Magill, Richmond, Va.

REFORMED PRESBYTERIAN (GENERAL SYNOD).

General Synod. Stated Clerk, James T. Boice, D.D., 2213 Spring Garden St., Philadelphia, Pa.

Board of Foreign Missions of the General Synod (1836). Sec., Rev. David Steele, 2102 Spring Garden St., Philadelphia, Pa.

REFORMED PRESBYTERIAN (SYNOD).

Synod. Stated Clerk, J. W. Sproull, D.D., 122 East North Ave., Allegheny, Pa.

Central Board of Missions. Sec., W. J. Coleman, D.D., 1205 Boyle St., Allegheny, Pa.

Board of Foreign Missions of the Synod (1856). Sec., Rev. R. M. Somerville, D.D., 327 W. 56th St., New York City. *Olive Tree.*

ASSOCIATE REFORMED PRESBYTERIAN CHURCH (SOUTH).

General Synod (1875). Stated Clerk, Rev. James Boyce, Due West, S. C.

Board of Foreign Missions (1873). Sec., W. L. Pressley, D.D., Due West, S. C.

Board of Home Missions (1887) and *Church Extension* (1879) (Consolidated 1902). Cor. Sec., R. G. Miller, D.D., Charlotte, N. C., R. F. D. I.

UNITED PRESBYTERIAN.

General Assembly (1858). An. meeting, May. Principal Clerk David F. McGill, D.D., 1508 Chartier St., Allegheny, Pa.

Board of Church Extension (1859). Cor. Sec., A. G. Wallace, D.D. Sewickley, Pa.

Board of Education (1859). Sec., W. T. Campbell, D.D., Monmouth, Ill.

Board of Foreign Missions (1859). Cor. Sec., Rev. Charles R. Watson 921 Witherspoon Bldg., Philadelphia, Pa.

Board of Freedmen's Missions (1863). Sec., J. W. Witherspoon, D.D., 1703 Buena Vista St., Allegheny, Pa.

Board of Home Missions (1859). Cor. Sec., Alexander Gilchrist, D.D., 209 9th St., Pittsburg, Pa.

Board of Publication (1859). Business Manager, J. D. Sands, D.D., 209 Ninth St., Pittsburg, Pa.

Women's Board (1886). Sec., Mrs. J. B. Hill, Bartlett St., Squirrel Hill, Pittsburg, Pa.

Women's General Missionary Society (1875). Sec., Mrs. S. Yourd, Carnegie, Pa.

WELSH PRESBYTERIAN CHURCH.

General Assembly. Stated Clerk, Rev. John R. Jones, Randolph, Wis.

PROTESTANT EPISCOPAL.

General Convention. Sec. (House of Bishops), Samuel Hart, D.D., Middletown, Conn.; (House of Deputies), Henry Anstice, D.D., 281 Fourth Ave., New York.

American Church Building Fund Commission (1880). Cor. Sec., Rev. J. Newton Perkins, Church Missions House, 281 Fourth Ave., New York.

American Church Missionary Society (1861). (Auxiliary to the Board of Missions.) Office Sec., Eugene M. Camp, Church Missions House, 281 Fourth Ave., New York City.

American Church Sunday School Institute. Sec., Rev. H. L. Duhring, D.D., 225 S. 3d St., Philadelphia, Pa.

Association for Promoting the Interests of Churches, Schools, Colleges and Seminaries. Sec., S. DeL. Townsend, D.D., 424 West End Ave., New York City.

Church Congress (Prot. Episcopal) (1874). Gen. Sec., Rev. Gustav A. Carstensen, Riverdale, New York City.

Church Endowment Society (1900). Gen. Sec., Rev. E. W. Hunter, New Orleans, La.; Business Manager, L. S. Rich, Church Missions House, 281 Fourth Ave., New York City.

Church Periodical Club (1892). Sec., Mrs. J. L. Chapin, 281 Fourth Ave.

Church Students' Missionary Association (1888). Sec., Rev. H. A. McNulty, Church Missions House, 281 Fourth Ave., New York City.

Church Unity Society (Protestant Episcopal). (1886). Triennial Meeting, 1907. Gen. Sec., Rev. G. W. Hodge, 334 S. 13th St., Philadelphia, Pa.

Commission for Church Work Among the Colored People. Sec., Rev. B. D. Tucker, 124 College Place, Norfolk, Va.

Domestic and Foreign Missionary Society (1821). Triennial Meeting, 1907. Gen. Sec., Rev. A. S. Lloyd, D.D., Church Missions House, 281 Fourth Ave., New York City. *The Spirit of Missions.*

Episcopal Tract Society. Sec., Miss Eleanor E. Wright, 4708 Frankford Ave., Philadelphia.

Evangelical Educational Society (1862). Gen. Sec., Rev. S. L. Gilbertson Church House, 12th and Walnut Sts., Philadelphia, Pa.

Parochial Missions Society for the United States (Evangelical Work). (1885.) Sec., Chas. M. Niles, D.D., Church Missions House, 281 Fourth Ave., New York City.

Protestant Episcopal Society for the Promotion of Evangelical Knowledge (1848). Sec., Thos. H. Topping, 2 Bible House, New York City.

Protestant Episcopal Tract Society. Agent, James Pott, 119 W. 23d St., New York City.

Society for the Increase of the Ministry (1856). Sec., Rev. F. D. Haskins, 13 Capital Ave., Hartford, Conn.

St. Augustine's League. (Works for the colored people of the South.) Sec., Mrs. G. L. Cheney, 131 E. 57th St., New York.

Woman's Auxiliary to the Board of Missions. Sec., Miss Julia C. Emery, Church Missions, 281 Fourth Ave., New York City.

REFORMED EPISCOPAL.

General Council of the Reformed Episcopal Church. Sec., Charles F. Hendricks, D.D., 2630 N. 12th St., Philadelphia.

Board of Foreign Missions, Treas., Rev. Charles F. Hendricks, D.D. 2630 N. 12th St., Philadelphia.

Missionary Jurisdiction of the Northwest and West, Bishop of. Samuel Fallows, D.D., 967 West Monroe St., Chicago, Ill.

Special Missionary Jurisdiction of the South, Bishop of. P. F. Stevens, D.D., 10 Judith St., Charleston, S. C.

Woman's Foreign Missionary Society. Treas., Mrs. M. V. Hammer, 23 Linden St., Bayonne, N. J.

REFORMED CHURCH.

(Formerly known as the Dutch Reformed Church.)

General Synod. Stated Clerk, W. H. De Hart, D.D., Raritan, N. J.

Board of Domestic Missions (1831). Cor. Sec., Charles H. Pool, D.D., 25 E. 22d St., New York City. *Mission Field*.

Board of Education (1832). Cor. Sec., Rev. John G. Gebhard, 25 E. 22d St., New York.

Board of Foreign Missions (1832). Cor. Sec., Henry N. Cobb, D.D., 25 E. 22d St., New York. *Mission Field*.

Board of Publication (1859). Cor. Sec., I. W. Gowen, D.D., 25 E. 22d St.

Woman's Board of Missions (1875). Sec., Miss O. H. Lawrence, 25 E. 22d St., New York City. *Mission Gleaner*.

REFORMED (GERMAN) CHURCH.

General Synod. Stated Clerk, John Ph. Stein, D.D., Reading, Pa.

CHRISTIAN REFORMED CHURCH.

Synod. Stated Clerk, Rev. Henry Beets, 77 Lagrave St., Grand Rapids, Mich.

ROMAN CATHOLIC.

American Federation of Catholic Societies. Pres., T. B. Minahan; Sec., Anthony Matre, 612 Pearl St., Cincinnati, Ohio.

Apostleship of Prayer. 29 W. 16th St., New York.

Association of the Holy Childhood. Rev. John Wilms, C. S. Sp., Box 598, Pittsburg, Pa.

Catholic Book Exchange (1892). Disseminates Roman Catholic literature at cost. Manager, Rev. A. P. Doyle, 120 W. 60th St., New York City.

Catholic Missionary Union (1896). Sec., Rev. A. P. Doyle, 120 W. 60th St., New York City.

Catholic Summer School. Meets each year on shore of Lake Champlain. Pres., Rev. M. J. Lavelle; Sec., Warren E. Mosher, New York.

International Catholic Truth Society. 373 Fulton St., Brooklyn, N. Y.

Priests Eucharistic League. Sec., Rev. E. Poirier S. S. S., 185 E. 76th St., New York.

Society for the Propagation of the Faith (1822). (Auxiliary to the Roman Congregation for the Propagation of the Faith.) *Annals of the Propagation of the Faith*, \$1. General Director for the United States, Rev. J. Freri, 627 Lexington Ave., New York City.

Society of St. Vincent De Paul (1832). "To relieve and improve the condition of the poor." *The St. Vincent de Paul Quarterly*, 50c. Sec., J. J. Fitzgerald, 111 Fifth Ave., New York.

St. Joseph's Society for Negro Missions. The Very Rev. Thomas B. Donovan, St. Joseph's Seminary, Baltimore, Md.

SPIRITUALIST.

National Spiritualist Association (1893). An. Meeting, October. Sec., Mrs. Mary T. Longley, 600 Pennsylvania Ave., S. E., Washington, D. C.

THEOSOPHIST.

Theosophical Society (1875). An. meeting in India in December. Organ, *The Theosophist*. Adyar, Madras, India.

American Section. An. meeting in Chicago, September. Organ, *The Theosophical Messenger*. Gen. Sec., Alexander Fullerton, 7 West 8th St., New York City.

UNITARIAN.

American Unitarian Association (1825). An. meeting in May. Sec., Rev. Chas. E. St. John, 25 Beacon St., Boston, Mass.

Christian Register Association publishes *The Christian Register*, weekly organ of the Unitarians. Editor, Rev. George Batchelor, 272 Congress St., Boston, Mass.

International Council of Unitarian and Other Liberal Religious Thinkers and Workers (1900). Meets biennially. Sec., Rev. C. W. Wendte, 11 Appleton St., Boston, Mass.

National Conference of Unitarian and Other Christian Churches (1865). Sec., Rev. Walter F. Greenman, Watertown, Mass.

National Alliance of Unitarian and Other Liberal Christian Women (1890). Sec., Mrs. Mary B. Davis, 25 Beacon St., Boston, Mass.

Unitarian Sunday School Society (1827). Pres., Rev. Edward A. Horton, 25 Beacon St., Boston, Mass.

UNITED BROTHERS IN CHRIST.

Board of Education. Sec., Rev. S. D. Faust, 1614 W. First St., Dayton, Ohio.

Church Erection Society (1869). Sec., W. M. Weekley, Dayton, Ohio.

General Sunday School Board. Sec., Col. Robert Cowden, Dayton, Ohio.

Home Frontier and Foreign Missionary Society (1853). *The Searchlight*. Secs., Rev. Wm. M. Bell, Rev. C. Whitney, Main and Fourth Sts., Dayton, Ohio.

United Brethren Publishing House. Agent, W. R. Funk, Dayton, Ohio.

Woman's Missionary Association (1875). An. Meeting, May. *Woman's Evangel*, 50c. Sec., Mrs. B. F. Witt, Dayton, Ohio.

UNIVERSALIST.

Universalist General Convention (1866). Council Meets October. Sec., Rev. G. L. Demorest, D.D., Manchester, N. H.

Universalist Publishing House. Clerk, Rev. F. W. Sprague, 30 West St., Boston, Mass.

Woman's Centenary Association (the Woman's Missionary Society of the Universalist Church). (1869.) An. Meeting, October. Sec., Mrs. Nellie M. Stouder, Muncie, Ind.

ADDRESSES OF WORKERS IN SOCIAL REFORM IN THE UNITED STATES.

L., Lecturer: A., Author.: Ed., Editor: Soc., Socialist: Coop , Cooperation.

- Abbot, Willis J. [Ed. *United States Daily*], Detroit, Mich.
 Abbott, Lyman, D.D., LL.D. [Ed. *Outlook*], 287 Fourth Ave., New York.
 Adams, Brooks [A], Quincy, Mass.
 Addams, Jane [Head of Hull House], 335 S. Halsted St., Chicago, Ill.
 Adler, Felix, Ph.D. [Soc. for Ethical Culture], 123 E. 60th St., New York.
 Andrews, Elisha B., LL.D. [Chanc. Univ. of Neb.], Lincoln, Neb.
 Anthony, Mrs. Susan B. [Hon. Pres. Am. Woman Suffrage Assn.], 17 Madison St., Rochester, N. Y.
 Atkinson, Edward, LL.D. [A], Box 112, Boston, Mass.
 Avery, Rachel Foster [Woman Suffrage], 4069 Powelton Ave., Philadelphia.
 Baker, M. N. [Asst. Ed. *Engineering News*], 220 Broadway, N. Y.
 Baker, Rev. Purley A. [Anti-Saloon League], Columbus, O.
 Barker, Wharton [Ed. *American*], 119 S. 4th St., Philadelphia.
 Barnes S. Mahlon (Sec. Socialist Party), 269 Dearborn St., Chicago, Ill.
 Barrows, Samuel J., D.D. [Prison Assn.], 135 E. 15th St., New York.
 Barry, J. H. [Ed. *Star*], 29 Montgomery St., San Francisco, Cal.
 Barton, Clara, Glen Echo, Maryland.
 Bemis, Edward W., Ph.D. [A], 178 Kensington St., Cleveland, Ohio.
 Bentley, Walter E., Rev. [Actors' Church Al.], Manhattan Theater, New York.
 Berger, Victor L. [Ed. *Vorwaerts*, Soc.], 344 6th St., Milwaukee, Wis.
 Blackwell, Alice Stone [Sec. Am. Woman Suffrage Assn.], 3 Park St., Boston, Mass.
 Bliss, Wm. D. P. [A. Christ, Soc.], Inst. of Soc. Service, 287 Fourth Ave.
 Booth, General Ballington [Pres. Vols. of Am.], 38 Cooper Sq., New York.
 Booth, Maud Ballington, Mrs., 38 Cooper Sq., New York.
 Booth, Evangeline [Com. Salvation Army, U. S.], 130 W. 14th St., New York.
 Bolen, George L., 123 E. Main St., Jackson, Mich.
 Brace, C. Loring [Children's Aid Society], 105 E. 22d St., New York.
 Bradford, Rev. J. H. [Nat. Curfew Assn.], 1419 20th St., N. W., Washington, D.C.
 Brinkerhoff, Gen. Roeliff [Nat. Prison Assn.], Mansfield, O.
 Brooks, John Graham [A. L.], 8 Francis Ave., Cambridge, Mass.
 Buchanan, Joseph R. [Labor Ed. N. Y. *Evening Journal*.] New York.
 Campbell, Helen S. [A.], care C. P. Gilman, 179 W. 76th St., New York.
 Capen, Samuel N. [Good Government Assn.], 350 Washington St., Boston, Mass.
 Casson, Herbert N. [Ed. Staff *Munsey's Magazine*], 35 Fulton St., New York.
 Catt, Mrs. Carrie C. [Vice-Pres. Woman's Suffrage Assn.], 205 W. 57th St., New York.
 Chase, John C. [Soc. ex-Mayor of Haverhill], Haverhill, Mass.
 Clark, Edgar E. [Chief Railway Conductors of Am.], Cedar Rapids, Ia.
 Coit, Stanton, Ph.D. [Eth. Soc.], 30 Hyde Park Gate, London, S. W., England.
 Coman, Prof. Katharine [College Settlements Assn.], Wellesley, Mass.
 Comings, S. H. [Industrial Education], 7 Jackson Boulevard, Chicago, Ill.
 Commons, John R. [A.], University of Wis., Madison, Wis.
 Cowles, James L. [Sec. Postal Progress League], 21 Park Row, New York.
 Crafts, Dr. Wilbur F. [Internat. Reform Bureau], 206 Pennsylvania Ave., S. E., Washington, D. C.
 Crittenton, Charles N. [Florence Crittenton Mission], 218 3d St., N. W., Washington, D. C.
 Crosby, Ernest H. [A. L. Tolstoian], Rhinebeck, N. Y.
 Cutting, R. Fulton [Citizens' Union], 32 Nassau St., New York.
 Darrow, Clarence S. [A. L.], 1202 Ashland Blk., Chicago, Ill.
 Dawson, Miles M. [A.], 858 West End Ave., New York.
 Debs, Eugene V. [L. Soc.], Terre Haute, Ind.

- Decker, Mrs. Sarah S. Platt [Pres. Gen. Fed. of Woman's Clubs], 1550 Sherman Ave., Denver, Colo.
- De Forest, Robert W. [Pres. Charity Organization], 7 Washington Sq, New York.
- Devine, Edward P. [Sec. Charity Organization], 287 Fourth Ave., New York..
- Diaz, Abbey M. [L. A.], Belmont, Mass.
- Diggs, Anne L. [L.], Topeka, Kas.
- Dike, Rev. Samuel W., LL.D. [Nat. League for Protection of Family], 113 Hancock St., Auburndale, Mass.
- Dodge, Grace H. [Working Girls' Societies], 262 Madison Ave., New York.
- Doyle, John T. [Sec. Civil Service Com], Washington, D. C.
- Duncan, James [Granite Cutters' Union], 1st V-Pres. Am. Fed. of Labor, Hancock Bldg., Quincy, Mass.
- Easley, R. M. [Sec. Nat. Civic Fed.], 281 Fourth Ave., New York.
- Ely, Richard T., Ph. D., LL.D. [A. Ed.], Madison, Wis.
- Ferguson, Rev. Charles [A], University Bldg., Kansas City, Mo.
- Fitler, Prof. Frank A. [Sec. Am. Econom. Assn.], Ithaca, N. Y.
- Flower, Benj. O. [Ed. *Arena*], 5 Park Sq., Boston, Mass.
- Folks, Homer [Sec. State Charities Aid Assn.], 287 Fourth Ave., New York.
- Freedenhagen, Rev. E. A. [Society for the Friendless], 306 Woodlawn Ave., Kansas City, Mo.
- Gaffenreid, Mary Clare de [A.], Bureau of Labor, Washington, D. C.
- Garland, Hamlin [A.], The Players' Club, 16 Gramercy Park, New York.
- Garrison, Wm. L. [Single Tax and Race Problems], Lexington, Mass.
- George, Henry [Single Tax], 180 St. Nicholas Ave., New York.
- George, W. R. [George Junior Republic], Freeville, N. Y.
- Ghent, W. J. [A.], 260 W. 54th St., New York.
- Giddings, Prof. Frank H. [Sociology], University of Columbia, New York.
- Gilman, Mrs. Charlotte Perkins [L. A.], 179 W. 76th St., New York.
- Gilman, Prof. N. P. [Profit Sharing], Meadville, Pa.
- Gladden, Rev. Washington, D.D., LL.D. [A.], Columbus, Ohio.
- Gompers, Samuel [Pres. Am. Fed. of Labor, Ed. *Am. Federationist*], 423 G. St., N. W., Washington, D. C.
- Gordon, Kate M. [Cor. Sec. Am. Woman Suffrage Assn.], 1800 Prytania St., New Orleans, La.
- Gougar, Helen M. [L.], La Fayette, Ind.
- Gould, E. R. L. [Pres. City & Suburban Homes Co.], 281 Fourth Ave., New York.
- Griggs, Edward Howard [L.], Montclair, N. J.
- Gunton, George [Ed. *Gunton's Magazine*], Colorado Bldg., Washington, D. C.
- Hale, Rev. Edward E., D.D., LL.D. [A.], 39 Highland St., Roxbury, Mass.
- Hall, Bolton [Land Question], 54 William St., New York.
- Hall, Prescott F. [Sec. Immigration Restriction League], 60 State St., Boston, Mass.
- Hanford, Ben., care *The Worker*, 184 Williams St., New York.
- Harris, Wm. T. [U. S. Com. of Education], Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C.
- Hart, Dr. Hastings H. [Supt. Nat. Children's Home Society], 79 Dearborn St., Chicago, Ill.
- Henderson, Prof. C. R., University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.
- Hodges, Rev. George, Episcopal Divinity School, Cambridge, Mass.
- Howes, Edith M. [Pres. Nat. League Women Workers], 415 Marlborough St., Boston, Mass.
- Hubbard, Elbert [Ed. *Philistine*], East Aurora, N. Y.
- Hunter, Robert [A.], 88 Grove St., New York.
- Jenks, J. W., Ph.D., LL.D., Prof., 220 South Ave., Ithaca, N. Y.
- Johnson, Tom L. [Mayor], Cleveland, Ohio.
- Johnson, Alexander [Sec. Nat. Congress of Charities and Corrections], 287 Fourth Ave., New York.

- Justi, Herman, Old Colony Bldg., Chicago, Ill.
 Kelley, Mrs. Florence [Sec. Nat. Consumers' League], 287 Fourth Ave., New York.
 Laidlaw, Rev. Walter, Ph. D. [Fed. of Churches], 11 B'way, New York.
 Lee, Algernon [Ed. Worker], 184 William St., New York.
 Lease, Mrs. Mary E. [L.], 80 E. 121st St., New York.
 Leipziger, Dr. H. M. [Supervisor of Lectures Department of Education], 59th St. and Park Ave., New York.
 Lewis, Rev. A. H., D.D., LL.D. [Sunday Question], 633 W. 7th St., Plainfield, N. J.
 Lindsay, Prof. S. M. [Sec. Nat. Child Labor Com.], 287 Fourth Ave., New York.
 Livermore, Mrs. Mary A. [L. A.], Melrose, Mass.
 Lockwood, Mrs. Belva Ann B. [Lawyer, Temperance and Woman's Rights], 619 F St., N. W., Washington, D. C.
 Lowell, Mrs. Josephine S., 120 E. 30th St., New York.
 Macy, V. Everett, 68 Broad St., New York.
 Maily, Wm. [Nat. Sec. Socialist Party], 269 Dearborn St., Chicago, Ill.
 Markham, Edwin [L. Poet], Weisterleigh, S. I., N. Y.
 Mathews, Shailer [Prof. Univ. of Chicago, Ed. *World To-day*], 67 Wabash Ave., Chicago, Ill.
 Maxwell, George H. [Nat. Irrigation Assn.], 1419 F St., Washington, D. C.
 McFarland, Horace [Pres. Am. Civic Assn.], Harrisburg, Pa.
 McMackin, John [N. Y. State Labor Com.], Albany, N. Y.
 McNeill, George E. [Trade Unionist], 161 Devonshire St., Boston, Mass.
 Mead, Edwin D. [Ed. *New England Mag.*], 20 Beacon St., Boston, Mass.
 Mills, Benjamin Fay [L.], Los Angeles, Cal.
 Mills, Walter Thomas [L. Soc.], Box 405, Kansas City, Mo.
 Miller, Pres. George McA. [Ruskin Univ.], Glen Ellyn, Ill.
 Mitchell, John [Pres. United Mine Workers], Spring Valley, Ill.
 Montgomery, Mrs. F. M. [College Settlements], 5548 Woodlawn Ave., Chicago, Ill.
 Morris, Max [4th Vice-Pres. Am. Fed. of Labor], P. O. Box 1581, Denver, Colo.
 Morrison, Frank [Sec. Am. Fed. of Labor], 136 A St., N. W., Washington, D. C.
 Nelson, N. O. [Coöp.], 8th and St. Charles St., St. Louis, Mo. LeClaire, Edwardsville, Ill.
 Neill, Charles P. [U. S. Com. of Labor], Bureau of Labor, Washington, D. C.
 Newton, R. H., Rev., D.D. [A.], East Hampton, N. Y.
 Oberholtzer, Mrs. Sara L. [School Savings Bank], Longport, N. J.
 O'Connell, James [3d Vice-Pres. Am. Fed. of Labor], 402 McGill Bldg., Washington, D. C.
 Ogden, Robert, 771 Madison St., New York.
 Paine, Robert Treat [Pres. Ass'd Charities], 6 Joy St., Boston, Mass.
 Park, Milton [Ed. *Southern Mercury*, Pop.], Dallas, Texas.
 Parkhurst, Rev. C. H., D.D., LL.D. [Civic Reform], 133 E. 35th St., New York.
 Parsons, Frank [A. L. Politico-Economic Subjects], Mt. Holly, N. J.
 Peabody, Prof. Francis G., D.D. [A.], 13 Kirkland St., Cambridge, Mass.
 Peabody, George Foster, 27 Pine St., New York.
 Pomeroy, Eltweed [Pres. Nat. Direct Legislation League], East Orange, N. J.
 Post, Louis F. [A. L. Ed. *The Public*], Unity Bldg., Chicago, Ill.
 Powell, Mrs. Anna R. [Purity Alliance], 6300 Green St., Philadelphia, Pa.
 Purdy, Lawson [Tax Reform], 52 William St., New York.
 Reynolds, James B., University Settlement, 184 Eldridge St., New York.
 Riis, Jacob A. [J. A.], 524 N. Beech St., Richmond Hill, N. Y.
 Routahn, E. G. [Bureau of Civic Coöp.], 5711 Kimbarch Ave., Chicago, Ill.
 Russell, Dr. Howard H. [Lincoln League], 110 E. 125th St., New York.
 St. John, John P. [L.], Olathe, Kas.
 Salter, Wm. M. [Eth. Culture], 6042 Woodlawn Ave., Chicago, Ill.
 Sargent, Frank P. [Com. Gen. of Immigration], Washington, D. C.
 Scudder, Vida D. [A. L.], 250 Newbury St., Boston, Mass.
 Severance, Mrs. C. M. S., Los Angeles, Cal.

- Shaw, Albert [Ed. *Review of Reviews*], 13 Astor Pl., New York.
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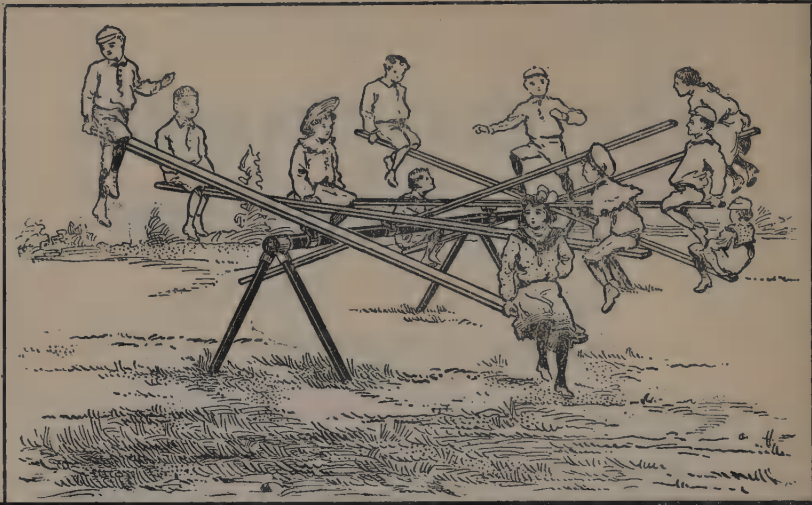
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